SOUVENIR AND OFFICIAL PROGRAMME

OF THE

CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION

OF

THE INAUGURATION

OF

GEORGE WASHINGTON



Committees on the Centennial Celebration, April 30th 1889, of the Inauguration of George Washington as President of the United States

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Office of the Secretary, 251 Broadway

New York October 20th 188

Col. J.J.Garnett.

12 Frankfort St., City.

My dear Sir.-In reply to your request that the Committee on the Centennial Celebration, of the Inauguration of George Washington, as President of the United States, should give you permission to publish the Official Programme of the ceremonies which will take place in this city, on April 30th 1889; let me say that I am requested by Mr. Elbridge T. Gerry, the Chairman of the Executive Committee, to write to you, to say that you are at liberty to publish the Programme you propose, without responsibility to our committee and subject to its final review and approval.

very truly yours,

Clarence W. Bowen

Secretary.

Telephone Call, "21st Street, 126."

1863 - 26 YEARS' EXPERIENCE. - 1889

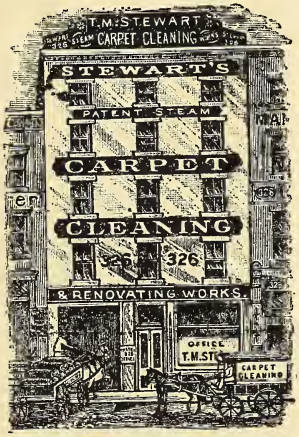
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THE CONSTITUTION.

I.

Tyrant winter's icy fetters, wherewith Alpine heights are belted,
Under God's free summer sunshine fall away.
Slowly, surely as the season comes, his massive chains are melted,
And a single drop is born of every ray;
Then confluent in their currents sing the little brooklets hurrying
To unite and form a torrent in its power,
Rushing headlong down the mountain, every opposition burying,
Growing stronger and yet stronger hour by hour,
Till at last their force is gathered in the broad and placid river
Flowing noiselessly and steadily along,
Messenger of peace and plenty from the glorious All-giver,
Though it moves without a roar, without a song.

II.

So, in genesis of nations swells the human tide forever
Of resistance to the wrongs on which men brood,
Trickling first, then drop by drop of individual endeavor,
Finding volume till there falls a mighty flood,
Strong enough to move a thousand mills if Titans could but store it,
Making chasms out of each and every crack,
Sweeping many an ancient barrier from the course that lies before it,
Leaving chaos—but a pathway—in its track;
Then its violence is swallowed in a People's peaceful yearning
For respect which only dignity can draw,
And the Freedom-loving spirit, noisy effervescence spurning,
Finds its triumph in the fixed domain of Law.

III.

Fitly we commemorate with stirring songs of exultation
Revolution's call to arms, our bells all ring,
Peal of cannon, burst of fireworks, brings to mind the Declaration,
Which renounced allegiance to Britain's King,
But the birth of statehood in our peerless written Constitution
Calls for heartfelt paeans of deeper music now.
That we see in it the final unimpeached and sure solution
Of the governmental problem, all allow.
Thence arose the system under which a proud and fearless nation
Swears to guarantee the weakest in his right;
Hymns of praise unto Jehovah dedicate our celebration,
The centennial of a dawn that has no night!

J. A.

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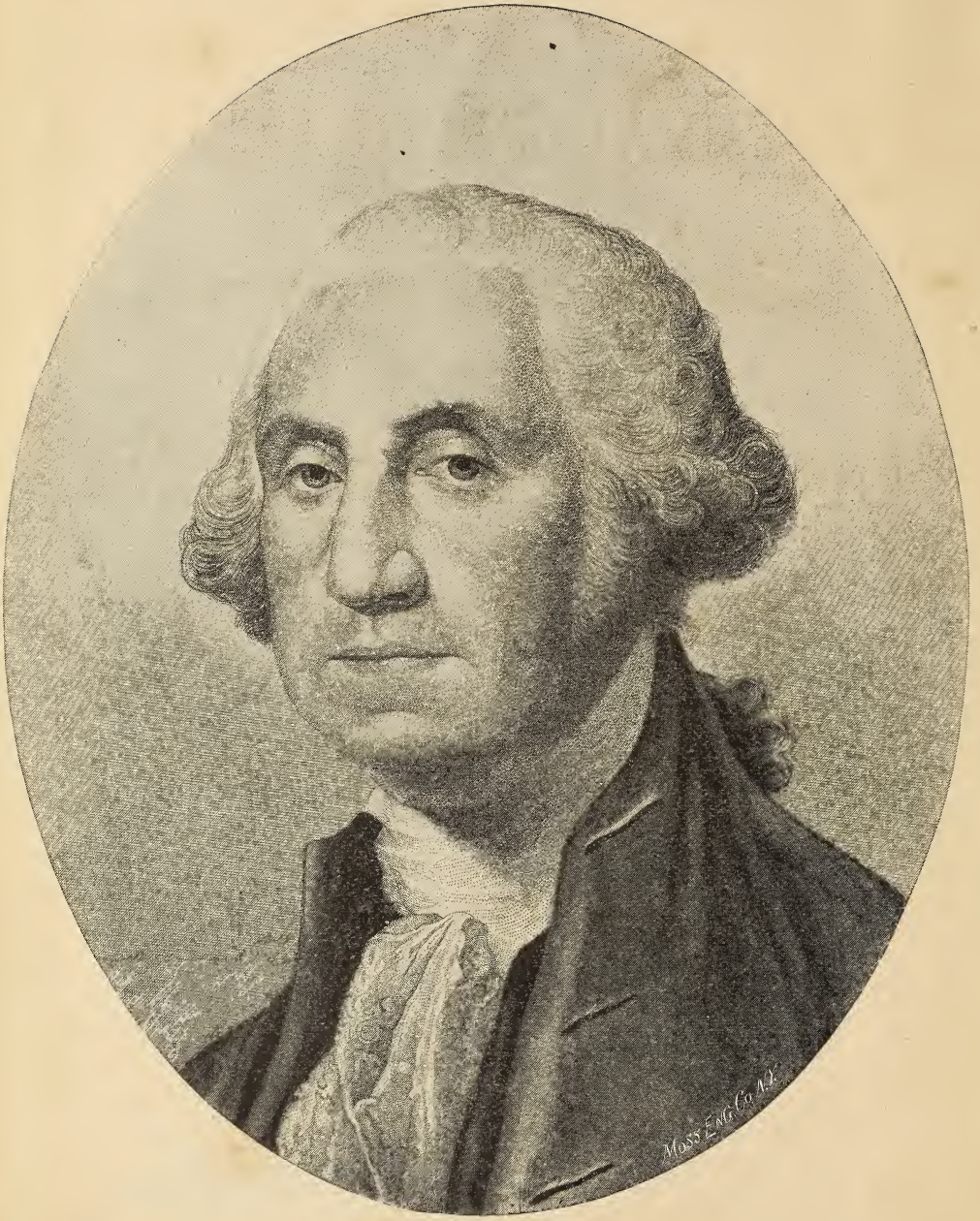
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AND

OFFICIAL PROGRAMME

OF THE

CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION

OF

GEORGE WASHINGTON'S

INAUGURATION

AS

FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

COMPILED AND EDITED BY JOHN ALDEN.

PUBLISHED BY
GARNETT & GOW,
NEW YORK.

PRICE ONE DOLLAR.

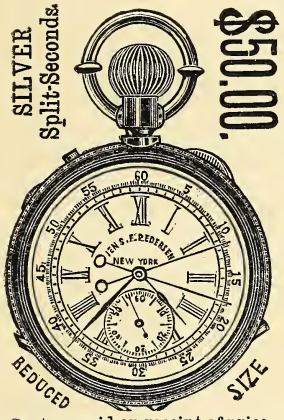
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PREFACE.

For matter used in this Souvenir the Editor wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to "Harper's Magazine," "The Century," "The Cosmopolitan," "Illustrated New York" (by The International Publishing Co.), "The First Century of the Republic" (Harper's), and also to exhaustive special articles in the *World*, *Herald*, *Sun*, and *Times*. He has very freely used the Official Programme of the Constitutional Centennial Celebration in Philadelphia (1887. Published by J. F. Dickson & Co.). In the Constitutional history of the United States, which runs through all the Presidential Administrations, the writer has availed himself of all the standard works. He is most largely under obligation to Bancroft on the history of the Constitution, and to Judge Cooley on points connected with its interpretation. Much interesting information on the history of Life Assurance in the United States has been taken from "Fowler's History of Life Assurance in Philadelphia."

J. A.

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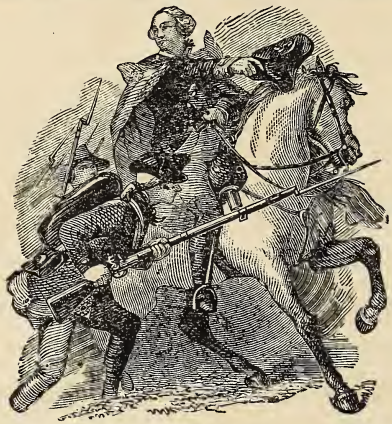
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CHAPTER I.

PROGRAMME OF THE CELEBRATION—ITS CONCEPTION AND SCOPE.

The movement to celebrate the 100th anniversary of the inauguration of George Washington, as President of the United States in 1789, rose out of a mass meeting of citizens of New York, at which a committee was appointed to arrange details and to enlist the interest of other States, and of the State and National governments. The undertaking was one of stupendous proportions, but has been fitly carried out. The various sub-committees appointed have done their work well. Most of the Territories and all of the States will be represented by commissioners or militia details, or both. The State of New York, through the Legislature, acted promptly and liberally.

The following memorial was presented to President Grover Cleve-



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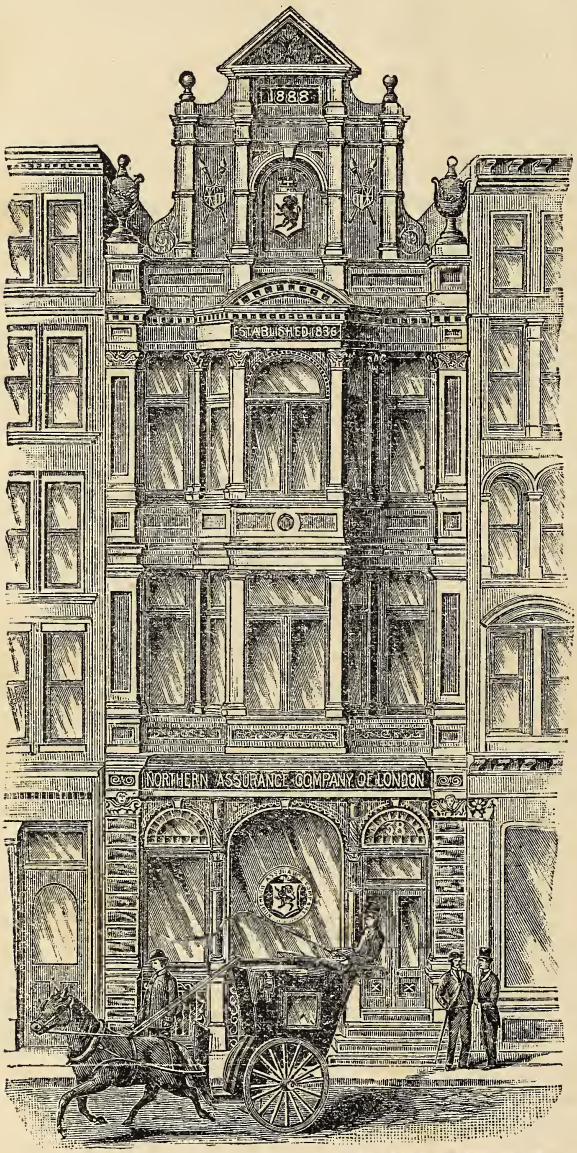
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HENRY H. HALL, Manager.

land, by Hon. John A. King, the Chairman of the Sub-Committee on General Government of the Committee on the Centennial Celebration of the Inauguration of George Washington as President of the United States, on March 11, 1888 :

NEW YORK, March 10, 1888.

To the President of the United States :

The Centennial Anniversary of the Organization of the Constitutional Government of the United States, of the First Meeting of Congress, and of the Inauguration of George Washington as President of the United States, in the City of New York, will occur on the 30th day of April, 1889.

It is appropriate that the anniversary of these great events should be properly celebrated in the same city, and upon the exact date and site of their occurrence, one hundred years ago.

Moved by such considerations, the citizens of New York, in conjunction with the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York, the New York Historical Society, the Order of the Cincinnati, and the Society of the Sons of the Revolution, have organized a grand Committee of Citizens, "on the Centennial Celebration of April 30,

..Ye Ink of ye Ancients..

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These inks have been in constant and daily use for very many years, bye ye British Government and bye ye leading *Banking* and *Mercantile* Houses in England, Australia, China, Japan, India, South America, and all ye British Possessions, and are in use now in all ye Government Departments at *Washington*, where they give perfect satisfaction.

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ALL YE MANY PEOPLE TAKE HEED.

1789," and have appointed the undersigned as their chief officers, with instructions to make the observance of the occasion worthy of the city, of the State, and of the signal events to be commemorated: and, further, to respectfully ask that you will make this determination the subject of a communication to Congress, inviting National co-operation, as it is to be a celebration in which the Nation and the States should assist in unison with the people of New York.

Remarkable and becoming as, in their respective localities, were the ceremonies, in which all sections united, in recognition of 1776, of Yorktown, and of the formation of the Federal Constitution in 1787, yet is the anniversary of the 30th of April, 1789, more noteworthy, as being the final and pre-eminently the greatest of the National Centennials, the consummation of the manifold blessings attained by all others preceding, and commemorative of the taking of the Oath of Office by George Washington, in the presence of the Houses of Congress, whereby the wheels of a Republican Constitutional Government were set in motion, complete in its Executive and Legislative branches, and fully equipped for its great work.

The precise spot upon which this august ceremony took place,



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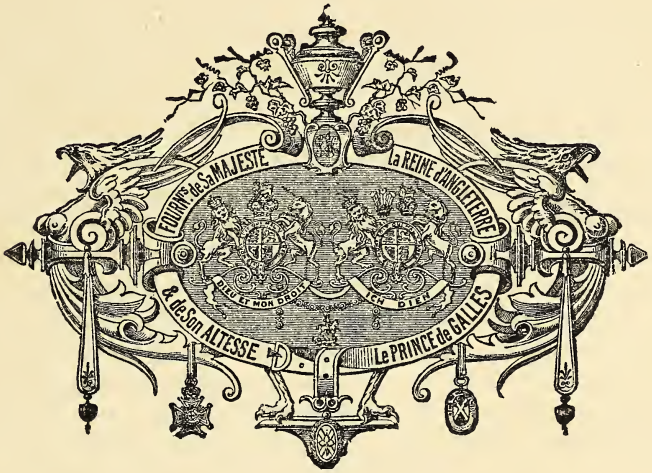
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Around this hallowed spot the people of New York will gather in 1889, and, as outlined in the Plan and Scope, which we have the honor to submit to you, invitations will be issued to the President of the United States, the Members of his Cabinet, the Federal Judiciary, the Houses of Congress, the Heads of the Departments, the Governors and Legislators of the States and Territories, the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, the resident representatives of the Foreign Governments having friendly relations with the United States, and representatives of various organizations and societies of the Union, to unite with them in appropriate observances of the occasion. It is proposed to confine the programme to the day of 30th of April, 1889; that there shall be a military and naval parade, in which, under orders issued by the President, the United States troops and the vessels of the Navy shall participate, in connection with the military and industrial organizations from the different cities and States, as well as with those of the City and State of New York; that some formal exercises

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shall take place on the steps of the Sub-Treasury, where Washington was inaugurated ; that there shall be delivered a commemorative oration and poem ; and, finally, that there shall be a banquet to which the honored guests of the City will be duly invited.

The grandeur of the occasion and its approriate observance upon the historic site, in the midst of the great metropolis of the Western Hemisphere, cannot fail to impress themselves upon your own consideration, and, therefore, in asking your full co-operation with us, your memorialists would respectfully request that you may be pleased to draw the attention of Congress to this subject by a special message, and thereby impart to this great celebration the broad characteristic of nationality in which the States and Territories should fully join.

HAMILTON FISH,
President.
ABRAM S. HEWITT,
Chairman of General Committee
ELBRIDGE T. GERRY,
Chairman of Executive Committee.
CLARENCE W. BOWEN,
Secretary.

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Net Surplus, - - - - - - - - - -	548,337.91
Total Assets, - - - - - -	**$1,308,514.32**

DAVID ADEE, President.
W. H. CROLIUS, Secretary.
CHAS. P. PIERCE, Ass't Sec'y.

On January 8, 1889, the following invitation was extended to the State and Territorial Commissioners :

1st.—You are respectfully requested, upon your arrival in New York, the last of April next, to call at the Governor's Room, in the City Hall, and to there register your names and give your addresses in the city.

2nd.—You are respectfully requested to meet in the Governor's Room on Monday afternoon, April 29th (the exact hour to be announced later), and under military escort proceed to the foot of Wall Street, to meet the President of the United States upon his arrival in this city.

3rd.—You are respectfully requested to return with the President of the United States, the Governor of the State of New York, and the Mayor of the City, to the Governor's Room, in the City Hall, where a public reception will be held.

4th.—On the evening of Monday, April 29th, there will be a ball in the Metropolitan Opera House, to which you are invited.

5th.—At 8.30 o'clock on Tuesday morning, April 30th, you are

STATEMENT OF THE UNITED STATES BRANCH OF THE

ROYAL INSURANCE CO. OF LIVERPOOL, ENG.

JANUARY 1, 1889.

ASSETS.

Real Estate,	$1,818,200 10
Cash in Bank,	328,711 82
United States Government Bonds,	886,350 00
Illinois Central R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	107,000 00
Lake Shore and Michigan Southern R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	130,000 00
Albany & Susquehanna R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds	123,500 00
N. Y. Central and Hudson River R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	137,500 00
Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	125 500 00
Delaware and Hudson Canal Company's First Mortgage Bonds,	57,000 00
N. Y., Lackawanna and Western R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	97,820 00
N. Y. & Harlem R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	145,200 00
Chicago and Northwestern R. R Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	143 000 00
West Shore R. R Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	105,000 00
Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific R. R Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	135,000 00
Brooklyn and Montauk R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	28 125 00
Syracuse, Binghamton, and N. Y. R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	63,000 00
Morris & Essex R. R Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	23,200 00
St. Paul, Minneapolis & Manitoba R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	53,750 00
Pittsburgh, Fort Wayne and Chicago R. R. Co., First Mortgage Bonds,	20.090 00
Chicago, Burlington and Quincy R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	47,075 00
Cincinnati, Indianapolis, St. Louis and Chicago R R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	95,750 00
Michigan Central (Detroit and Bay City) R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	69,440 00
Michigan Central R. R. Co. First Mortgage Bonds,	10.480 00
Accrued Interest,	18,529 32
Uncollected Premiums,	433,809 21
Other Assets,	20,663 15
Held in the U. S. for the special protection of its American Policy Holders,	$5,233,693 60

LIABILITIES.

Unpaid Losses,	$290,502 06	
Unearned Premiums,	2,331,399 53	
Other Liabilities,	406,788 54	
		3,028,690 59
Surplus,		$2,205,003 01

BOARD OF MANAGEMENT:

JACOB D. VERMILYE. J. H. INMAN. FREDERICK D. TAPPEN.
OSGOOD WELCH. HENRY PARISH. EDMUND W. CORLIES.

E. F. BEDDALL, Manager. Wm. W. HENSHAW, Assistant Manager.

Office: ROYAL INSURANCE BUILDING,
50 Wall St., New York.

requested to meet in the Governor's Room, in the City Hall, and proceed to St. Paul's Church, to attend the service of Thanksgiving, which will take place at nine o'clock. The service will also be attended by the President of the United States and other gentlemen of distinction, and will be conducted by the Bishop of New York and the Rev. Dr. Morgan Dix, Rector of St. Paul's Church.

6th.—At the close of the services at St. Paul's Church, the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and the Chairman of the Commissioners of each State are requested to proceed to the grand stand on the steps of the Sub-Treasury building, to hear the literary exercises and view the parade.

7th.—At the banquet, at the Metropolitan Opera House, the Governor of each State will be invited, or, in his absence, the Lieutenant-Governor, or, in his absence, some gentleman of distinction from each State, whom the Governor may appoint.

8th.—The States will have precedence in all cases according to the date of their admission into the United States.

The general scheme here outlined has been followed. The full official programme is given in the following pages.

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LIMITED,

Stocks, Bonds, Grain, Provisions,

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NEW YORK.

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Three Wonderful New Sewing Machines,

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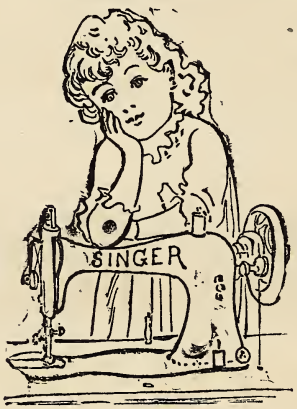
LIGHT RUNNING AND NOISELESS. MOUNTED IN ELEGANT CABINET WORK.

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OSCILLATOR.

"The Expert's Favorite."



SINGER

VIBRATOR.

"The Ideal simple family sewing machine."

SINGER AUTOMATIC

(SINGLE THREAD)

WILL NOT FATIGUE THE MOST DELICATE LADY.

Ladies Living in Apartments should see our DRAWING-ROOM CABINET, by which any of our latest family sewing machines can be entirely concealed at will in an elegant piece of cabinet work.

PRINCIPAL OFFICE,

Fourth Ave., cor. 16th Street,

NEW YORK.

BRANCHES IN

Every City and Town in the World.

CHAPTER II.

PROGRAMME OF THE CELEBRATION—THE LOAN EXHIBITION—RECEIVING THE PRESIDENT.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17.

I. Formal opening of the Loan Exhibition of Historical Portraits and Relics in the Assembly Rooms of the Metropolitan Opera House, at 8.30 P. M.

The Loan Exhibition will be open to the public on Thursday, April 18, and remain open from 10 A. M. to 6 P. M., and from 7 P. M. to 10 P. M., day and evening, until Wednesday, May 8. Admission fee, 50 cents.

Liverpool & London & Globe

INSURANCE COMPANY,

45, 47 & 49 William Street and 41 & 43 Pine Street,

NEW YORK CITY.

STATEMENT, JANUARY 1, 1889.

Assets,	$6,963,811.91
Liabilities,	3,963,284.63
Surplus,	$3,000,527.28

MONDAY, APRIL 29.

II. The Naval Parade will take place in New York Harbor from 11 A. M. to 1 P. M.

The Governors, Commissioners of States and other guests, with ladies invited by the Committee on States, and the members of the General Committee will embark at 9.30 A. M., on the steamer *Erastus Wiman*, at ferry slip foot of West Twenty-third street, New York City, to receive the President, and to meet the President's steamer off Elizabethport. Admittance by special blue ticket.

On the arrival of President Harrison and the Cabinet officers, and other officials of distinction, at Elizabethport, at 11 o'clock Monday morning, the party will at once embark for New York City. The President and immediate suite will be received by the Committee on Navy, and under their direction will embark on the President's steamer provided by that Committee.



MONDAY, APRIL 29.

The steamer *Sirius*, under the management of the Committee on Navy, will receive at Elizabethport other guests and official personages of the Presidential party who cannot be accommodated on the President's steamer. Admission to steamer *Sirius* will be by red ticket. The line of United States ships of war, yachts, and steamboats will be formed in the Upper Bay under Admiral David D. Porter, U. S. N., as Chief Marshal, and will be reviewed by the President.

On the arrival of the Presidential party in the East River, opposite Wall Street, a barge manned by a crew of shipmasters from the Marine Society of the Port of of New York, with Capt. Ambrose Snow, President of that Society, as coxswain, will row the President ashore. The crew of the barge that rowed President Washington from Elizabethport to the foot of Wall street were members of the same society. The steamers *Erastus Wiman* and *Sirius*, prior to the debarkation of the President, will land at pier 16, Wall Street, the guests for the reception at the Equitable Building, and proceed with the remaining passengers to West Twenty-third Street Ferry and West Twenty-second Street.

HOME INSURANCE COMPANY OF NEW YORK.

Office, No. 119 BROADWAY.

SEVENTY-FIRST SEMI-ANNUAL STATEMENT.

JANUARY, 1889.

SUMMARY OF ASSETS.

Cash in Banks and Trust Companies,	$359,833 26
Bonds and Mortgages, being first lien on Real Estate,	701,300 00
United States Stocks (market value),	2,818,850 00
Bank and Railroad Stocks and Bonds (market value),	2,379,130 00
State and City Bonds (market value),	411,869 89
Loans on Stocks, payable on demand,	239,400 00
Interest due and accrued on 1st January, 1889,	79,098 83
Premiums uncollected and in hands of Agents,	626,500 15
Real Estate,	1,345,675 14
Total,	$8,961,657 27

LIABILITIES.

Cash Capital,	$3,000,000 00
Reserve Premium Fund,	3,767,507 00
Reserve for Unpaid Losses, Claims and Taxes,	669,483 88
Reserve for Sinking Fund,	22,203 78
Net Surplus,	1,502,462 61
Cash Assets,	$8,961,657 27

DANIEL A. HEALD, President.

WILLIAM L. BIGELOW, THOMAS B. GREENE, } Secretaries. JOHN H. WASHBURN, ELBRIDGE G. SNOW, Jr., } Vice-Presidents.

HENRY J. FERRIS, AREUNAH M. BURTIS, } Ass't Secretaries.

New York, January 8, 1889.

MONDAY, APRIL 29.

III. On arriving at foot of Wall Street the President of the United States will be received by the Governor of the State of New York, the Mayor of the City of New York, Hamilton Fish, President of the Committee, and William G. Hamilton, Chairman of Committee on States.

The President and other guests will next be escorted to the Equitable Building, where a reception and collation will be tendered them by the Committee on States.

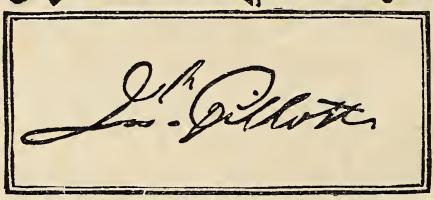
The procession will be formed as follows:

JOSEPH GILLOTT'S

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GOLD MEDAL





PARIS 1878.



THE MOST PERFECT OF PENS.

FOR FINE WRITING, Nos. 303, 604, and LADIES', 170.
FOR GENERAL WRITING, Nos. 404, 332, 390 and 604.
FOR BROAD WRITING, Nos. 294, 389, and Stub Point, 849.

FOR ARTISTIC USE,

Nos. 659 (THE CELEBRATED CROWQUILL), 290 & 291.

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WHOLESALE WAREHOUSE, 91 JOHN STREET, NEW YORK.

HENRY HOE, Sole Agent.

MONDAY APRIL 29.

Brevet Lieut.-Col. Floyd Clarkson, Marshal.
Band Fifth Regiment United States Artillery.
Three foot batteries Fifth Regiment United States Artillery.
New York Commandery of the Loyal Legion of the United States.
Commanders of Posts of the Grand Army of the Republic in counties of New York and Kings.
Cappa's Band.
Uniformed Battalion of Veterans Seventh Regiment, N. G. S. N. Y.
Uniformed Veteran Militia Associations of New York and Brooklyn.
Band of the General Service, United States Army.
Society of the Sons of the Revolution.
The General Committee of the Centennial Celebration.

DECKER BROTHERS'
PIANOS.
THE BEST,
The Most Durable,
33 UNION SQUARE,
NEW YORK.

MONDAY, APRIL 29.

The President of the United States, the Governor of the State of New York, the Mayor of the City of New York, and Hamilton Fish, President of the Committee, flanked by the barge crew from the Marine Society of the Port of New York.

The Vice-President of the United States, and Lieutenant Governor of the State of New York.

The Secretaries of State, Treasury, War, and Navy of the United States.

The Secretary of the Interior, the Postmaster-General, the Attorney-General, and Secretary of Agriculture of the United States.

The Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

The Associate Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, and Judges of other Federal Courts.



Send Green Stamp for 24-Page Circular.

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MONDAY, APRIL 29.

The Governors of States, taking precedence in the order of admission of their State into the Union.

The official representation of the Senate of the United States.

The official representation of the House of Representatives of the United States.

The Governors of Territories and President of the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia, taking precedence in the order of establishment of their Territorial governments.

The Admiral of the Navy, General Sherman, the Major-General commanding the Army, and officers of the Army and Navy who by name have received the thanks of Congress.

The official representation of the Society of the Cincinnati.

BARBOUR'S IRISH FLAX THREAD.

THE MANUFACTURE OF THESE THREADS WAS COMMENCED IN 1784—ONE HUNDRED AND FIVE YEARS AGO.

1784. TRADE FLAX MARK. 1889.

These Threads have always been and are now the standard of excellence, and are made in every variety for hand and machine work. Sold by respectable dealers throughout the country.

FACTORY IN PATERSON, N. J.

THE BARBOUR BROTHERS COMPANY,

NEW YORK. BOSTON. PHILADELPHIA.
CHICAGO. ST. LOUIS. SAN FRANCISCO.

MONDAY, APRIL 29.

The Chief Judge and Judges of the Court of Appeals of the State of New York.

The Presiding Justice and Justices of the Supreme Court of the State of New York, and Judges of other courts of record within the City of New York.

The Legislature of the State of New York.

Officers of the State of New York.

Judges and Justices of other courts in the city of New York.

The Board of Aldermen of the City of New York.

Heads of departments in the City of New York.

Mayor of the City of Brooklyn.

The Board of Aldermen of the City of Brooklyn.

The Foreign Consuls of New York, and officers of the Army and Navy of the United States.

Invited guests, without special order of precedence.

CURE for the DEAF!



PECK'S PATENT IMPROVED CUSHIONED EAR DRUMS, **Perfectly Restore the Hearing,** whether deafness is caused by colds, fevers or injuries to the natural drums. Invisible, comfortable, always in position. Music, conversation, whispers heard distinctly, noises in head overcome. Successful where all other remedies fail. Sold only by

F. HISCOX, 853 Broadway,

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Write or call for illustrated book of proofs FREE.

MONDAY, APRIL 29.

The distance from the landing at the foot of Wall Street to the Equitable Building being but a few blocks, the procession will proceed on foot from the landing at Wall Street to the Equitable Building, carriages being provided only for the President and his immediate party. At the reception in the Equitable Building the President with his Cabinet, the Governors of the States, the Governor of the State of New York, and the Mayor of the City of New York will have presented to them the guests, who will pass and bow to the President and party without shaking hands (as was the custom at the reception of Washington in 1789). The reception will last from 2 to 3.30 o'clock. Admission only by buff tickets.

IV. From 4 to 5.30 o'clock a public reception will be given to the President of the United States in the Governor's room in the City Hall, the President, the Governor of the State of New York, and the Mayor of the City of New York proceeding under military escort.

At the steps of the City Hall a representation of girls from the public schools will assemble and welcome the President of the United States.



Shoppell's Classified BUILDING DESIGNS

Complying with the oft-repeated request of many of our patrons, we have classified our Building Designs for Residences according to cost. This classification includes all of our popular designs and **many new ones** specially prepared for the purpose.

An owner may now choose from a large number of *designs of the same cost*, and not waste time on others. Each classification includes about the largest possible variety of designs its limit of cost allows. Usually the owner need look no further.

"Truly called perfect aids to intending builders."—*Christian Herald, N. Y.*

LIST OF CLASSIFICATIONS:

Views, floor plans, all dimensions and full descriptions are given. Printed on heavy supercalendered plate paper—size of page, 10½x14 inches. Each classification enclosed in a handsome cloth portfolio.

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" *$1500 " 25 "
" *$2000 " 25 "
" *$2500 " 25 "
" *$3000 " 28 "
" *$3500 " 32 "
" *$4000 " 26 "

Portfolio of
" *$5000 Houses; 25 Designs.
" *$6000 " 22 "
" *$7500 " 20 "
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*Exact cost of each design stated and its *correctness guaranteed.* In many cases the exact costs are slightly under or over the "class" figure. Prices for materials and labor given on which costs are based.

Prices: One Portfolio, $2.00; Three Portfolios, $5.00; Seven Portfolios, $10.00; Twelve Portfolios (the full set), $15.00. Delivered by mail or express, all charges prepaid.

Remit by Check on Local Bank, Draft, P. O. Order, Express Order, or enclose bills and Register the Letter.

Address: THE CO-OPERATIVE BUILDING PLAN ASSOCIATION, Architects,
(Or for a shorter address, *R. W. SHOPPELL*), **63 Broadway, New York.**

UNION SQUARE HOTEL
—AND—
HOTEL DAM.

DAM & DE REVERE, PROPRIETORS.



THE UNION SQUARE HOTEL is situated in the heart of the mteropolis, on the corner of Fifteenth Street, facing Union Square. It is built of brick and stone, and will accommodate three hundred and fifty guests.

It is conducted on the European plan, is elegantly furnished, and contains all modern conveniences: hot and coid water in each room; elevator, with all the safety appliances; fire alarms; steam heat and open grates; electric bells, etc.

Its close proximity lo all the leading retail stores, theatres, elevated railroads, horse cars, and principal points of interest in the city, makes it a desirable place for merchants and tourists to stop at, either on business or pleasure.

THE HOTEL DAM,

fronting on Fifteenth Street, immediately in the rear of and connecting with the Union Square Hotel, is seven stories in height, and is strictly fire-proof. The rooms are all built in suites, trimmed in hard-wood, with baths, hot and cold water, closets, etc., in each room.

The ventilation and sanitary improvements are perfect in every respect, and for a family hotel will compare favorably with any other first-class hotel in the world.

The RESTAURANTS, CAFE and SALONS are unexcelled.

The proprietors trust that their long experience in the business will enable them to cater successfully to the tastes and wants of those whose pleasure it may be to favor them with their patronage.

DAM & DE REVERE, Proprietors.

CHAPTER III.

PROGRAMME OF THE CELEBRATION—THE GRAND BALL—RELIGIOUS SERVICES.

MONDAY, APRIL 29 (EVENING).

V. In the evening, at nine o'clock, the Centennial Ball will be given in the Metropolitan Opera House. The following is the programme :

The Mayor of the City of New York, as host and as Chairman of the Committee on the Centennial Celebration of the Inauguration of George Washington as President of the United States, to arrive at the Metropolitan Opera House at 10.15 P. M., and at 10.30 to receive the President of the United States and other distinguished guests.



TO ORDER FROM $18.00.

The Latest Styles in Woolen Fabrics Always on Hand.

THE MOST COMPLETE STOCK IN THE COUNTRY.

Quick Work a Specialty.

Suits to Order in 12 Hours if required.

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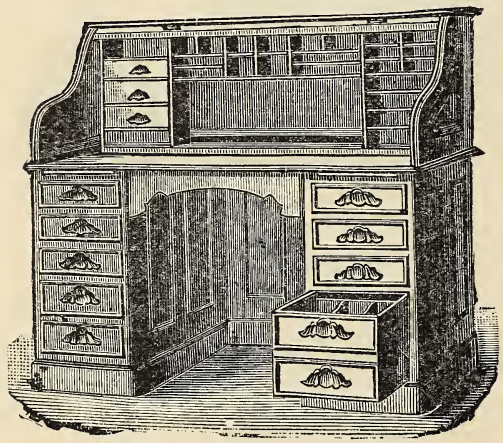
MONDAY, APRIL 29 (EVENING).

The President to be brought to the Ball by the Chairman of the Committee on Entertainment, accompanied by the Governor of the State of New York and Mrs. Harrison, the Vice-President and Mrs. Morton, the Lieutenant-Governor and Mrs. Jones.

The Manager of the Ball to meet the President at his carriage and conduct him into the building, where the formal reception by the Mayor will take place.

After the reception, the guests above named will be conducted to the floor in the following order, escorted by a guard of honor :

The Mayor, The President, The Governor,
The Vice-President and Mrs. Harrison.
The Lieutenant-Governor and Mrs. Morton.
The President of the General Committee and Mrs. Jones.



E. H. MASON,

AGENT FOR

Smith's Roll Top Desks

ALSO

Manufacturer of and Dealer in

OFFICE FURNITURE

No. 62 William Street,

OFFICES FITTED UP. NEW YORK.

MONDAY, APRIL 29 (EVENING).

In front of the President's box the Chairman of the Committee on Entertainment will present to the President the Chairman of the Executive Committee and the members of the Committee on Entertainment, and of the Committee on Plan and Scope.

After the presentation, the opening quadrille will be formed by the Manager of the ball.

At midnight the President and party will be escorted in the above order to the supper-room, which order will be observed on returning. The serving of wine will cease at 1 o'clock A. M., in compliance with the law.

COLTON DENTAL ASSOCIATION,

ORIGINATORS OF THE USE OF

NITROUS OXIDE GAS

—FOR THE—

PAINLESS EXTRACTION OF TEETH.

Their Scroll contains the names of over 163,000 people who have taken the gas and vouch for its efficacy. The gas is fresh every day.

ESTABLISHED JULY 15TH, 1863.

No. 19 COOPER INSTITUTE, NEW YORK.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

VI. Services of thanksgiving, pursuant to the proclamation of the President, will be held in the churches in New York and throughout the country at 9 A. M., being the hour at which religious services were held in New York City on April 30, 1789.

VII. A special service of thanksgiving will be held in St. Paul's Chapel at 9 o'clock, which the President and other distinguished guests will attend. This service will be conducted by the Right Rev. Henry C. Potter, D. D., LL. D., Bishop of New York, as the service on the day of Washington's inauguration in 1789 was conducted by the Bishop of New York, the Right Rev. Samuel Provoost. Admission only by lavender ticket.

Metropolitan Trust Company

OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Nos. 37 & 39 Wall Street.

Paid in Capital $1,000,000, Invested in United States & N. Y. City Bonds.

SURPLUS $569,639.76.

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OFFICERS:

THOMAS HILLHOUSE, President.

FREDERICK D. TAPPEN, Vice-Pres't.

CHARLES M. JESUP, Secretary.

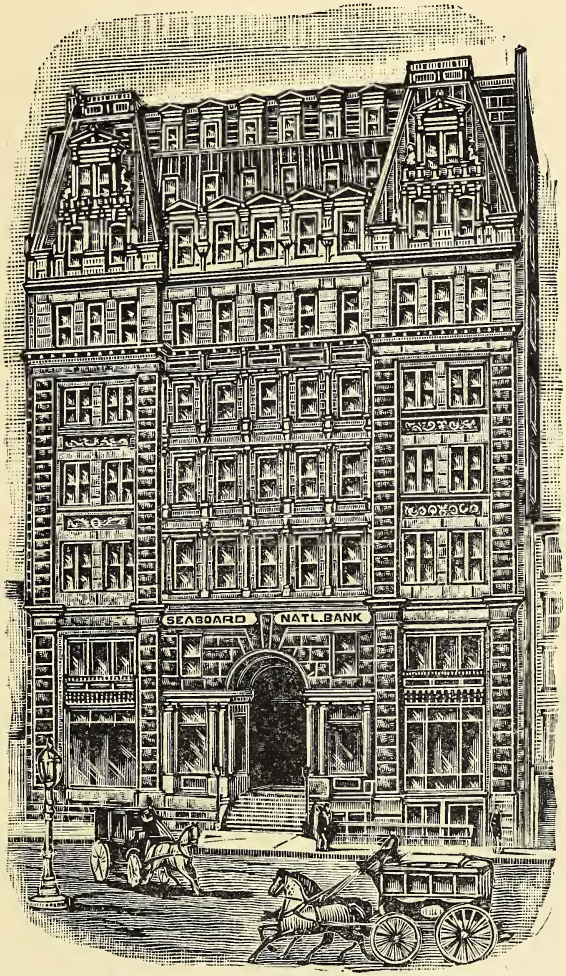
BEVERLY CHEW, Ass't Secretary.

THE SEABOARD NATIONAL BANK

OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Designated Depository of the United States, State of New York, and City of New York.

CAPITAL, $500,000. SURPLUS and PROFITS, $140,000.



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W. A. PULLMAN, President. S. G. BAYNE, Vice-President. S. G. NELSON, Cashier. J. F. THOMPSON, Ass't. Cashier.

CORRESPONDENTS.

Chicago, Merchant's Loan and Trust Co.; Boston, Boston National Bank; Philadelphia, Central National Bank; New Orleans, State National Bank; Baltimore, Md., National Marine Bank; Charleston, S. C., First National Bank of Charleston.

Collections Made Promptly and Economically

An office is provided for the special use of Correspondents visiting the City.

The Bank acts as Reserve Agent for Banks throughout the country, and solicits correspondence of Banks, Bankers, Merchants, Corporations etc.

Orders for the purchase of securities will receive careful attention, and be executed promptly.

Special attention is given to the deposit and exchange of Bonds at Washington for National Banks.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

The Committee of the Vestry of Trinity Church will meet the President at the Vesey Street gate and escort him to the west porch of the chapel, where he will be received by the rector and the full Vestry. The President will then be escorted to the Washington pew, and on his withdrawal from the chapel the Vestry will escort him to the west porch, where he will be received by the Committee on Literary Exercises at the Vesey Street gate.

Richmond Straight Cut No. 1.

CIGARETTES.



Cigarette Smokers who are willing to pay a little more than the price charged for the ORDINARY TRADE Cigarettes will find ***THIS BRAND*** superior to all others.

The Richmond Straight Cut No. 1 Cigarettes are made from the brightest, most delicately flavored and highest cost ***Gold Leaf*** grown in Virginia. This is the ***Old and Reliable Brand of Straight Cut*** Cigarettes, and was brought out by us in the year 1875.

BEWARE OF IMITATIONS and observe that the firm name as below is on every package.

Allen & Ginter, Manufacturers, Richmond, Va.

ALSO MANUFACTURERS OF

VIRGINIA BRIGHTS CIGARETTES,

AND THE FINER GRADES OF SMOKING TOBACCO.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

The services at St. Paul's Chapel will be as follows .

1. Processional Hymn.
2. Our Father, &c.
3. Psalm lxxxv.
4. First Lesson, Eccles. xliv.
5. Te Deum.
6. Second Lesson, St. John viii.
7. Benedicite.
8. Creed and Prayers.
9. Address by the Rt. Rev. Henry C. Potter, Bishop of New York.
10. Recessional Hymn.

BLAIR'S PILLS.



GREAT ENGLISH REMEDY

FOR

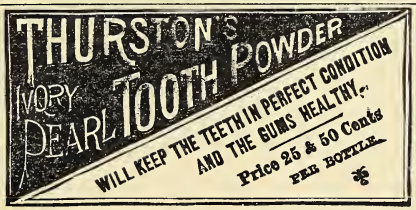
GOUT AND RHEUMATISM.



SURE, PROMPT, AND EFFECTIVE.

LARGE BOX, 34 PILLS. SMALL, 14 PILLS.

At all Druggists in the United States or 224 William St. N. Y.



This is a most excellent article for cleansing and preserving the teeth. It hardens the gums, sweetens the breath, and beautifies the teeth. It contains no acid or harsh, gritty substance—nothing that can injure the enamel in the slightest degree.



The Celebrated **Chinese Skin and Toilet Powder,** for restoring, beautifying, and preserving the complexion. Boxes **25c.** Sold by all Druggists and Fancy Goods Houses.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

VIII. At the close of the religious services at 9.45 A. M., the President and party will proceed to the Sub-Treasury Building, at the corner of Wall and Nassau Streets, the scene of the Inauguration ceremony on April 30, 1789, where the literary exercises will take place. These exercises will begin at 10 A. M.

Invocation by the Rev. Richard S. Storrs, D. D., LL. D.

Poem by John Greenleaf Whittier.

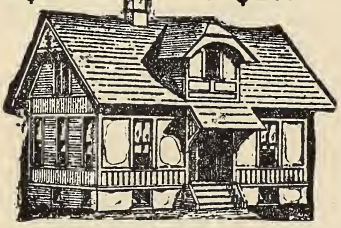
Oration by Chauncey Mitchell Depew, LL. D.

Address by the President of the United States.

Benediction by the Most Rev. Michael Augustine Corrigan, Archbishop of New York.

HOW TO BUILD A HOUSE.

A $5 Book For $1.00.



If you are thinking of building a house you ought to buy the new book, Palliser's American Architecture, or every man a complete builder, prepared by Palliser, Palliser & Co., the well known architects.

There is not a Builder or any one intending to Build or otherwise interested that can afford to be without it. It is a practical work and everybody buys it. The best, cheapest and most popular work ever issued on Building. Nearly four hundred drawings. A $5 book in size and style, but we have determined to make it meet the popular demand, to suit the times, so that it can be easily reached by all.

This book contains 104 pages 11 x 14 inches in size, and consists of large 9 x 12 plate pages giving plans, elevations, perspective views, descriptions, owners' names, actual cost of construction, no guess work, and instructions How to Build 70 Cottages, Villas, Double Houses, Brick Block Houses, suitable for city suburbs, town and country, houses for the farm and workingmen's homes for all sections of the country, and costing from $300 to $6,500; also Barns, Stables, School House, Town Hall, Churches, and other public buildings, together with specifications, form of contract, and a large amount of information on the erection of buildings, selection of site, employment of Architects. It is worth $5.00 to any one, but I will send it in paper cover by mail postpaid on receipt of $1.00; bound in cloth, $2.00. Address all orders to J. S. OGILVIE, PUBLISHER, P. O. Box 2767. 57 Rose St., New York.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

IX. At the conclusion of the literary exercises the President and members of the Cabinet, the Chief Justice and Associate Justices of the United States will be driven to the reviewing stand at Madison Square to review the parade. Other guests will be carried to the reviewing stands by a special train on the Third Avenue Elevated Railroad, which will start at Hanover Square and run to the Twenty-third street Station.

JACQUOT'S



GENUINE

FRENCH BLACKING.

THE BEST IN THE MARKET.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30

X. While the literary exercises are taking place the military will move from the head of Wall Street and Broadway. The column, under Major-Gen. John M. Schofield, U. S. A., as Chief Marshal, will be composed of the Cadets from the Military Academy of West Point, the Naval Cadets from Annapolis, the troops of the Regular Army and Navy, and the National Guard of each State in the order in which the States ratified the Constitution or were admitted into the Union. These will be followed by the Military Order of the Loyal Legion and the posts of the Grand Army of the Republic.

CHAPTER IV.

PROGRAMME OF THE CELEBRATION—THE GREAT PARADE AND THE BANQUET.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

XI. The route of the military procession will be from Wall Street up Broadway to Waverley Place, to Fifth Avenue, to Fourteenth Street, to Union Square, east, north, and west, to Fifteenth Street, to Fifth Avenue, to Fifty-seventh Street.

The industrial parade will form above Fifty-seventh Street, and will march down Fifth Avenue to Fifteenth Street, to Union Square, north, east, and west, to Fourteenth Street, to Fifth Avenue, to Waverley Place, to Broadway, to Canal Street.

Procession moves at 10 A. M.

E. T. HILLYER,

Dry Goods Commission Merchant

COTTON AND SILK GOODS,

No. 50 Leonard St., - New York.

CELLULOID NOVELTY COMPANY,

SOLE MANUFACTURERS OF

CELLULOID COLLARS AND CUFFS,

Jewelry, Handles, Penholders, Fancy Goods.

313 and 315 Broadway, New York.

W. S. SILLCOCKS, *President.* C. L. BALCH, *Vice-President*

F. R. LEFFERTS, *Secretary and Treasurer.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

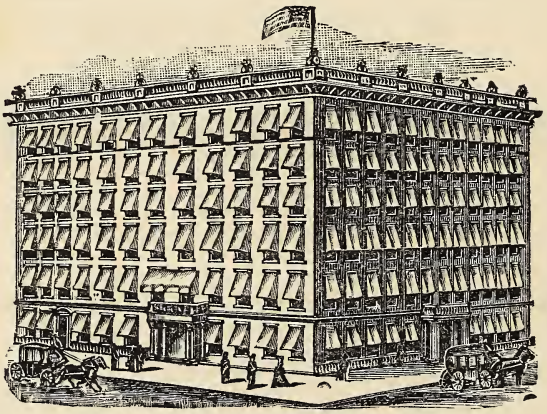
The other stands will be as follows :

1. On the west side of Fifth Avenue from Twenty-fourth to Twenty-fifth street.

2. On the west side of Fifth Avenue from Fortieth to Forty-second Street.

3. On the north side of Washington Square.

4. On the east side of Broadway at the City Hall Park.



WESTMINSTER HOTEL,

IRVING PLACE AND 16th STREET,

Near Union Square, Stuyvesant and Gramercy Parks.

Location central and convenient to all the large retail stores and places of amusement.

W. G. SCHENCK, PROPRIETOR.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30 (EVENING).

XII. The Centennial Banquet will take place at the Metropolitan Opera House at 6.30 P. M.

XIII. At 8 P. M. there will be, at the reviewing stand, Madison Square, a free open-air concert of vocal and instrumental music, under the auspices of the German-Americans of New York.

AGENCY

OF THE

ROYAL HUNGARIAN WINE CELLARS

HAS REMOVED TO

60 BROAD STREET,

NEW YORK.

In ordering *Hungarian Wines*, be sure to see that the bottles bear the SEAL and LABEL of the Royal Hungarian Government; guaranteeing purity and quality.

You will then be sure you are getting good pure wine.

60 BROAD STREET,

NEW YORK CITY.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30 (EVENING).

XIV. During the evening there will be a general illumination of the city, and display of fireworks in the following localities :

Tompkins Square, Canal Street Park, Washington Square, Union Square, Fifty-ninth street and Eighth Avenue, Mount Morris Park, East River Park (Eightieth Street), Washington Heights, and places in Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth wards not yet determined.

OCEAN HOUSE

NEWPORT, R. I.

J. G. WEAVER & SONS, . . Proprietors.

EVERETT HOUSE,

UNION SQUARE, NEW YORK.

JOHN G. WEAVER, JR. & CO. . . Proprietors.

1789 Everybody Will 1889

Illuminate and Decorate to Celebrate

THE CENTENNIAL

OF THE

INAUGURATION : OF : OUR : FIRST : PRESIDENT.

To make it effective and held in remembrance by the rising generation, use the

UNXLD

Colored Illuminating Torches,
Colored Illuminating Fires, Lanterns,
Flags, Streamers, Burgees, &c., &c.

OUR NEW ILLUMINATING CUPS

For Windows, Inside or Outside, Lawns, Boats, &c.

NO DANGER OF FIRE NOR DROPPING OF GREASE. THE EFFECT IS LIKE "FAIRY LAND!"

FIREWORKS

Of Every Description and all kinds of Celebration Goods for July 4th and other Holidays.

at WHOLESALE and RETAIL.

THE UNEXCELLED FIREWORKS CO.

9 and 11 Park Place, New York City.

Pyrotechnists to the Centennial Inauguration of Washington.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

R. C. Gilchrist, Major Commanding the Washington Light Infantry, of Charleston, S. C., as such commander, is the custodian of the William Washington battle-flag, the only Revolutionary standard in condition for use on parade. The flag was in the fight at the Cowpens and Eutaw Springs. It antedates the Stars and Stripes, and has been honored at all the centennials, and will be brought on here by Major Gilchrist for his company. This flag will be distinguished by a post of honor in the Centennial parade escorting the President from St. Paul's Church to the United States Sub-Treasury Building, and saluting him on the grand stand at Madison Square.

TO PUBLISHERS OF ALMANACS

‡——AND——‡

OTHER PAMPHLETS

HAVING AN EDITION OF ONE MILLION COPIES OR MORE.

Your attention is especially called to the

SUPERIOR FACILITIES

which I have for the above work.

250,000 COPIES DELIVERED DAILY.

WILLIAM GOW, 220, 222 William Street, New York.

TUESDAY, APRIL 30.

The names of Gardiner Sherman, a great-grandson of Roger Sherman, Arthur De Windt, Louis H. Livingston, great-grandson of Col. Morgan Lewis, Grand Marshal of Washington's Inauguration; T. B. Bleecker, Thomas Jefferson Coolidge, Jr., of Boston, great-grandson of Thomas Jefferson, and Brooke Adams, a great-great-grandson of John Adams, are among the list of ushers who will serve on the platform of the Sub-Treasury Building during the literary exercises.

RUNKEL ✝ BROTHERS,

Chocolate Manufacturers,

NEW YORK.

GUARANTEE ALL THEIR MANUFACTURES TO BE

ABSOLUTELY PURE.

WEDNESDAY, MAY 1.

XV. The Industrial and Civic Parade under command of Major-Gen. Daniel Butterfield, late U. S. Vols., Chief Marshal, will take place. The line of march will be from Fifty-seventh Street down Fifth Avenue to Waverley Place, up Waverley Place to Broadway, and down Broadway to Canal street.

The students of Columbia College, and the College of the City of New York, 400 strong, will head an educational division in the second day's parade, and will be followed by 3,000 boys from the grammar schools of the city.

GEO. H. MORRILL & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS OF FINE

Printing and Lithographic Inks.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 17 VANDEWATER ST.

BOSTON. CHICAGO. SAN FRANCISCO.

THANKSGIVING DAY PROCLAMATION.

One of the later acts of President Harrison was the issuance of the following proclamation on April 5:

By the President of the United States of America.

A PROCLAMATION.

A hundred years have passed since the Government which our forefathers founded was formally organized. At noon on the 30th day of April, 1789, in the City of New York, and in the presence of an assemblage of the heroic men whose patriotic devotion had led the colonies to victory and independence, George Washington took the oath of office as Chief Magistrate of the new-born Republic. This impressive act was preceded at 9 o'clock in the morning, in all the churches of the city, by prayer for God's blessing on the Government and its first President.

The centennial of this illustrious event in our history has been declared a general holiday by act of Congress, to the end that the people of the whole country may join in commemorative exercises appropriate to the day.

In order that the joy of the occasion may be associated with a deep thankfulness in the minds of the people for all our blessings in the past, and a devout supplication to God for their gracious continuance in the future, the representatives of the religious creeds, both Christian and Hebrew, have memorialized the Government to designate an hour for prayer and thanksgiving on that day.

Now, therefore, I, Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States of America, in response to this pious and reasonable request, do recommend that on Tuesday, April 30, at the hour of 9 o'clock in the morning, the people of the entire country repair to their respective places of Divine worship, to implore the favor of God, that the blessings of liberty, prosperity, and peace may abide with us as a people, and that His hand may lead us in the paths of righteousness and good deeds.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States of America to be affixed.

Done in the City of Washington this 4th day of April, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Eight Hundred and Eighty-nine, and of the Independence of the United States the One Hundred and Thirteenth.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

[SEAL.] By the President.

JAMES G. BLAINE, Secretary of State.

THE PAST AND THE FUTURE.

In tracing the Constitution through the different Administrations we have seen Jefferson himself yielding to the loose-construction theory in the purchase of Louisiana, Calhoun favoring a protective tariff in 1817, Jackson asserting nationality against the nullification doctrine in 1832, the Democratic party supporting a fugitive slave law bringing the power of the Nation home to every citizen in 1850, and the final and conclusive demonstration of the Constitution's elastic strength during the Civil War, and even more conspicuously in the "reconstruction" which followed that war. We see now an interstate commerce law on the statute books which involves marvelous extension of Federal powers and a persistent effort on the part of a large minority, which may at any time become a majority, to pass a bill bringing the telegraph system under Federal ownership and to extend aid and supervision to the educational systems of the States. It is apropos, after this review, to quote the language of Judge Cooley, written in 1880, which seems to offer a not unreasonable prophecy. He says: "The gradual energizing of Federal authority has been accomplished quite as much by the course of public events as by the new amendments to the Constitution; and, however careful every Federal and State official and every citizen may be to so perform all political functions as to preserve, under all circumstances, the true constitutional balance of powers, and to sanction no unconstitutional encroachments, there can be no question that the new interests coming gradually within the purview of Federal legislation, and the increase in magnitude and importance of those already under Federal control, must have a still further tendency in the direction indicated."

However this may be, the real issue between political parties is likely to hinge on the question of centralization *vs.* localization of power for many years to come, just as it has hinged on that question ever since the first party contest took place in the United States. Only for brief periods will the parties be likely to change places. New Federalism is in the saddle just now. The Democracy of Jefferson, however, has not lost its vitality. If party struggles are lifted out of the realm of personalism and into that of principle no one will ever have any reason to fear for the future of this great Republic.

CHAPTER V.

ORDER IN WHICH NEW YORK TROOPS MARCH.

In accordance with the order of Governor Hill the National Guard of New York will move as follows in each of the Centennial parades:

GOVERNOR HILL AND STAFF.

Troop A, First Brigade—Captain Roe.

FIRST BRIGADE—GEN. LOUIS FITZGERALD, N. Y.

First Battery—Capt. Louis Wendel.
Second Battery—Capt. David Wilson.
Seventh Regiment—Col. Emmons Clark.
Eighth Regiment—Col. George D. Scott.
Ninth Regiment—Col. Wm. Seward, Jr.
Twelfth Regiment—Col. W. Barber.
Twenty-second Regiment—Col. John T. Camp.
Sixty-ninth Regiment—Col. James Cavanagh.
Seventy-first Regiment—Col. Ford Kopper.

SECOND BRIGADE—GEN. JAMES MCLEER, BROOKLYN.

Third Battery—Capt. H. S. Rasquin.
Thirteenth Regiment—Col. David B. Austen.
Fourteenth Regiment—Col. W. H. Michel.
Twenty-third Regiment—Col. J. M. Partridge.
Thirty-second Regiment—Col. L. Finkelmeier.
Forty-seventh Regiment—Col. Ed. L. Gaylor.
Seventeenth Separate Company, Flushing—Capt. Thomas Miller, Jr.

THIRD BRIGADE—GEN. AMASA J. PARKER, JR., ALBANY.

Sixth Battery—Capt. L. L. Olmsted.
Tenth Battalion—Lieut.-Col. W. E. Fitch.

First Provisional Regiment, Lieut.-Col. Harding, 13th:

Fourth Separate Company, Yonkers, Capt. J. I. Pruyn.

Fifth Separate Company, Newburg, Capt. J. T. Chase.

Tenth Separate Company, Newburg, Lieut. W. J. Whited.

Eleventh Separate Company, Mount Vernon, Capt. I. N. Pressey.

Fourteenth Separate Company, Kingston, Lieut. J. G. Van Etten.

Fifteenth Separate Company, Poughkeepsie, Capt. Bert Myers.

Sixteenth Separate Company, Catskill, Capt. A. M. Murphy.

Nineteenth Separate Company, Poughkeepsie, Capt. W. Haubennestel.

Twenty-third Separate Company, Hudson, Lieut. R. Reynolds.

Twenty-fourth Separate Company, Middletown, Capt. C. B. Wood.

Second Provisional Regiment, Col. Alex. S. Bacon:

Third Separate Company, Oneonta, Capt. Walter Scott.

Sixth Separate Company, Troy, Capt. Jas. W. Cusack.

Seventh Separate Company, Cohoes, Capt. P. G. Tymerson.

Ninth Separate Company, Whitehall, Lieut. T. A. Patterson.

Twelfth Separate Company, Troy, Capt. J. Egolf.

Eighteenth Separate Company, Glens Falls, Capt. Jas. S. Garrett.

Twenty-first Separate Company, Troy, Capt. Saml. Foster.

Twenty-second Separate Company, Saratoga, Capt. R. C. McEwen.

Twenty-seventh Separate Company, Malone, Lieut. G. W. Crooks.

Thirty-second Separate Company, Hoosick Falls, Capt. C. W. Eddy.

THIRD PROVISIONAL REGIMENT, LIEUT.-COLONEL J. A. DENNISON, SEVENTY-FIRST:

Twentieth Separate Company, Binghamton, Captain H. C. Rogers.

Twenty-eighth Separate Company, Utica, Captain T. H. Remmar,

Thirty-first Separate Company, Mohawk, Captain A. I. Budlong.

Thirty-third Separate Company, Walton, Captain M. W. Marvin.

Thirty-fifth Separate Company, Ogdensburg, Captain H. Holland.

Thirty-sixth Separate Company, Schenectady, Captain A. A. Yates.

Thirty-seventh Separate Company, Schenectady, Captain G. W. Marlette.

Thirty-ninth Separate Company, Watertown, Captain J. R. Miller.

Forty-fourth Separate Company, Utica, Captain D. T. Everts.

Forty-sixth Separate Company.

FOURTH BRIGADE—GENERAL PETER C. DOYLE, BUFFALO:

Fifth Battery, Captain Michael Auer.

SIXTY-FIFTH REGIMENT, LIEUT.-COLONEL JOHN E. ROBIE:

Thirteenth Separate Company, Jamestown, Captain Henry Smith.
Forty-third Separate Company, Olean, Captain C. G. Thyng.

SEVENTY-FOURTH REGIMENT, COLONEL U. S. JOHNSON:

First Separate Company, Penn Yan, Captain A. Gridley.
Thirty-fourth Separate Company, Geneva, Captain William Wilson.
Forty-second Separate Company, Niagara Falls, Captain C. B. Gaskill.

FOURTH PROVISIONAL REGIMENT, COLONEL SAMUEL L. WELCH, SIXTY-FIFTH:

Second Separate Company, Auburn, Captain W. M. Kirby.
Eighth Separate Company, Rochester, Captain H. B. Henderson.
Twenth-sixth Separate Company, Elmira, Lieutenant F. B. Parke.
Twenty-ninth Separate Company, Oswego, Captain H. H. Herron.
Thirtieth Separate Company, Elmira, Captain R. Morse.
Thirty-eighth Separate Company, Oswego, Captain F. M. Stearns.
Fortieth Separate Company, Syracuse, Captain T. M. Barber.
Forty-first Separate Company, Syracuse, Captain W. B. Randall.
Forty-fifth Separate Company.

The Programme Approved.

At a meeting on April 13 of the Executive Committee of the Centennial Celebration, Stuyvesant Fish, Chairman of the Committee on Entertainment, made a report regarding his visit to President Harrison. He said that he had submitted the programme to the President, who expressed his approval.

It was arranged that the President, the members of the Cabinet, and the Justices of the Supreme Court shall leave Washington a little before 1 o'clock Monday morning, April 29, in a special train on the Pennsylvania road, and go through, so as to arrive at Elizabeth at 8 A.M. Monday, when the last car containing the President will be taken off, in order that the President may breakfast with Governor Green at Elizabeth.

The rest of the train will proceed to Elizabethport, where breakfast will be eaten in a special dining-car on the train. A special engine is to go back for the President and bring him from Elizabeth to Elizabethport, so that the entire party will be ready to embark at 10 o'clock.

MAY 8, 1889.

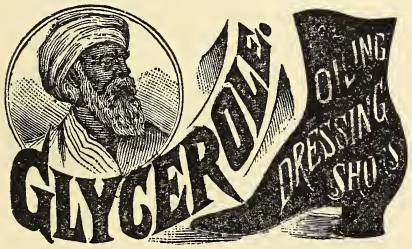
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Art and Historical

Loan Exhibition,

—AT THE—

METROPOLITAN OPERA HOUSE.



GLYCEROLE

FOR OILING AND DRESSING

Ladies' and Children's Shoes, &c.

THE ONLY OIL PREPARATION IN EXISTENCE.

Ladies need not ruin their fine shoes with Shoe Dressing. They can avoid it by using Glycerole.

SPECIMEN TESTIMONIAL: We recommend GLYCEROLE as the best article for renovating worn shoes. F. O'NEILL,
1172 and 1174 Broadway, New York.



DOG COLLARS AND FURNISHINGS.



The Only Exclusive Manufacturers of these Goods on Earth.

Medford Fancy Goods Co.,

44 AND 46 DUANE STREET, NEW YORK.

I. BREMER, President and Treasurer.

This company commenced business in Massachusetts in 1878, and moved to New York City in 1879. From the manufacture of $5,000 worth of these goods the first year, this business has developed into this stock company, who occupy the five-story building as above. They make all requisites for dogs, and supply 90 per cent. of the goods consumed



in the United States. There is not a village but has some of their thousands of styles of Dog



Furnishings, such as dog collars, harnesses, locks, leads, leashes, kennel chains, bells, blankets, couplings, brushes, combs, baskets and traveling bags, made out of gold, silver, copper, brass, velvet, corduroy, plushes, silks, harness and patent leathers, morocco, calf, alligator, and lizard skins. These



goods are warranted as to workmanship and material for their uses to the dealer, and if their



make is not kept by your dealers in your city write to them for illustrated catalogue.

CHAPTER VI.

CAUSES WHICH LED TO THE ADOPTION OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

The state of things out of which our Constitution arose was one well calculated to stir all patriot souls to their depths and to arouse in every honest bosom an ambition for something like a nation in whose politics, pettiness should not reign supreme, and in whose power, our own people and foreign rulers might equally be able to confide. Anarchy was absolutely the only alternative for such an outcome of events.

The "Articles of Confederation and of Perpetual Union," submitted to the States by Congress in 1777, had proven a perpetual condonation of disunion. Upon these articles was based the system

100 YEARS AGO THE PIANO INDUSTRY WAS IN ITS INFANCY.
TO-DAY IS MADE
THE EVERETT PIANO.
UNEXCELLED in every quality essential in a FIRST CLASS INSTRUMENT.
THE JOHN CHURCH CO.,
GENERAL FACTORS, CINCINNATI, O

of government under which so great evils had been developed and which was to be superseded by a system more worthy of the statesmanship and the patriotism of America.

There was no power in such a central authority to compel obedience to its laws, and, as Burke had wisely said: "Obedience is what makes government, and not the name by which it is called." Congress could enter into any sort of a treaty with any European power, and, except in the matter of laying import duties, every one of the States could throw that treaty to the dogs without violating the Articles of Confederation. It could do nothing for the regulation of commerce. It could make no navigation law to preserve for us the carrying trade. It could contract debts, but could not raise money to pay them. Its judicial authority was not respected by the States when any dispute arose, and there were no Federal courts to determine on the proper extent of Congressional jurisdiction. The States might laugh at its requisitions of men and money. They did. There was not one of them but at some time and in some fashion acted so as to throw contempt on the Confederation's Congress.

Peace with Great Britain had not been fairly secured before the weaknesses of the American Congress made themselves felt. In the last great camp of the army at Newburgh, Washington found a general sentiment to the effect that Congress and the State Legislatures could not be trusted. Soldiers and officers, who had borne the brunt of the Revolution's hardship, found their pay largely in arrears, themselves in circumstances of destitution, and no source to be seen from which they might expect relief. It was not strange that such a condition of things should produce bitterness and disquietude. General Gates, not disinclined to increase his own prominence by fomenting agitation, was the centre of the cabal which Washington had to contend against. An address was circulated calling for a mass meeting of the veterans. It had been drafted by Major John Armstrong, aide-de-camp to General Gates, and ran in part as follows:

"My Friends: After seven long years, your suffering courage has conducted the United States of America through a doubtful and bloody war, and peace returns to bless—whom? A country willing to redress your wrongs, cherish your worth, and reward your services? Or is it rather a country that tramples upon your rights, disdains your cries, and insults your distresses? Have you not lately, in the meek language of humble petitioners, begged from the favor of Congress what you could no longer expect from their justice? How have you been answered? Let the letter which you are called upon to consider

to-morrow make reply. If this be your treatment, while the swords you have are necessary for the defence of America, what have you to expect when those very swords, the instruments and companions of your glory, shall be taken from your sides, and no mark of military distinction left but your wants, infirmities, and scars? If you have sense enough to discover, and spirit to oppose, tyranny, whatever garb it may assume, awake to your situation. If the present moment be lost, your threats hereafter will be as empty as your entreaties now. Appeal from the justice to the fears of Government, and suspect the men who would advise to longer forbearance."

This was a direct attack upon Washington who, as a man of personal means, had been charged with failing to sympathize wlth lhe needs of common soldiers, and of those officers who had no private resources. The address was issued on March 10, 1783. The Commander-in-Chief succeeded in delaying the mass meeting until the 15th inst. Then he appeared there himself, and Gates was in the chair. Washington made one of the few speeches of his life. He assured his comrades they could command his services to the utmost of his abilities. At the same time he counselled faith in the justice of Congress and the integrity of the American people, and retorted the assault upon himself in the following language:

"While I give you these assurances, let me entreat you, gentlemen, on your part, not to take any measures, which in the calm light of reason will lessen the dignity and sully the glory you have hitherto maintained. Let me conjure you, in the name of our common country, as you value your own sacred honor, as you respect the rights of humanity, and as you regard the military and national honor of America, to express your utmost horror and detestation of the man who wickedly attempts to open the floodgates of civil discord and deluge our rising empire in blood."

The appeal of Washington was entirely successful. Provision was soon made for the army by an issue of certificates bearing interest at six per cent. This disturbance was ended. But the Father of of his Country had not failed to point out, even before the actual outbreak of the storm, the causes which produced it, and the only course which could prevent its recurrence. He wrote to Harrison, Governor of Virginia, under date of March 4th: "From the observations I have made in the course of this war,—and my intercourse with the States in their united as well as separate capacities, has afforded ample opportunities of judging,—I am decided in my opinion that if the powers of Congress are not enlarged and made competent to all

general purposes, the blood which has been spilt, the expense that has incurred, and the distresses which have been felt, will avail nothing; and that the bond which holds us together, already too weak, will soon be broken; when anarchy and confusion will prevail." This letter was placed among the public archives of Virginia. The same tone may be noted in nearly all the letters of Washington up to the period of the Annapolis Convention in 1786. On June 10, 1784, he wrote to Sir Edward Newenham: "This is an abounding country, and it is as fine as it is extensive. With a little political wisdom it may become equally prosperous and happy. Some of the States, having been misled, ran rife for awhile, but they are recovering a proper tone again, and I have no doubt but that our Federal Constitution will obtain more consistency and firmness every day. We have, indeed, so plain a road before us, that it must be worse than ignorance if we miss it."

New York's Legislature having rejected the impost of five per cent. laid by Congress, Washington wrote to James Duane from Mount Vernon (April 10, 1785): "It is painful to hear that a State which used to be foremost in acts of liberality and its exertion to establish our Federal system upon a broad bottom and solid ground, is contracting her ideas and pointing them to local and independent measures, which, if perservered in, must sap the constitution of these States, already too weak, destroy our national character, and render us contemptible in the eyes of Europe, as we have it in our power to be respectable."

On June 10, 1785, he wrote to William Carmichael: "Great Britain, viewing with eyes of chagrin and jealousy the situation of this country, will not for some time yet, if ever, pursue a liberal policy toward it; but, unfortunately for her, the conduct of her ministers defeats their own ends; their restrictions of our trade with them will facilitate the enlargement of Congressional power in commercial matters more than half a century would otherwise have effected, The mercantile interests of this country are uniting as one man, to vest the Federal government with ample powers to regulate trade and to counteract the selfish views of other nations."

A few months later (Dec. 11, 1785), Jefferson wrote from Paris to Monroe thus: "How goes on the disposition to confer the regulation of our commerce on Congress? On this side the Atlantic, we are viewed as objects of commerce only, and, as little to be relied on, even for this purpose, while its regulation is so disjointed."

It was going very slowly. An effort had been made in that

direction, but it had not met with much success. England, as Washington said, had provoked a spirit of resistance to her commercial aggressions that could not fail to end in something like Nationality in America. After the Revolution had ended, American merchants had made heavy importations of British goods. It is estimated that during the first year they imported more than the exports of three years could be depended upon to pay for. Large consignments of goods were also sent over to factors of English houses here. Running into debt for English goods became a National fault. But England did not propose to give the Yankees a chance to pay up, even in time, with exports. Her ruling classes hated America. In November, 1784, Jefferson had written: "Their hostility towards us has attained an incredible height. Notwithstanding the daily proofs of this they expect to keep our trade and cabotage to themselves by virtue of their proclamation (of neutrality). They have no idea that we can so far act in concert as to establish retaliating measures."

Such hostilities displayed themselves in English navigation acts and in protective duties against American goods. At the same time that our own manufacturing industries were crushed by the excessive importation of goods from England, our trade with the British West Indies was suddenly cut off. We could send them neither pitch nor turpentine, nor rice nor tobacco, and they could not buy ships from American yards. In a single year, Mr. Bancroft writes, the whale fisheries of Massachusetts had brought to their mariners $800,000 in specie. Most of the oil was sold in England, and now a duty of $90 per ton was imposed. Cash and bills of exchange had to pay for our importations from England. The tradesmen and mechanics of New York City joined with the merchants of the Empire State in demanding that the powers of Congress be extended, and the New York Legislature imposed a double duty on goods imported in English bottoms. As a temporary measure, the State of Pennsylvania passed a law imposing import duties on a large number of articles in order to protect manufacturers, in spite of the decision of Philadelphia, given in town meeting (June 2, 1785), to the effect that "relief from the oppressions under which the American trade and manufactures languished could spring only from the grant to Congress of full constitutional powers over the commerce of the United States," and "that foreign manufacturers interfering with domestic industry ought to be discouraged by prohibition or protective duties." Massachusetts merchants and tradesmen bound themselves by agreement at a meeting in Faneuil Hall not to buy British goods of resident British fac-

tors, and prayed Congress for immediate relief. The Bay State, together with New Hampshire and Rhode Island, passed laws prohibiting the export of goods from their ports in English vessels.

Virginia had early passed a law making a British creditor incompetent to sue in her courts. Everybody in that State was hot in resentment of the course of England. Even Monroe, who was in the habit of standing, with Richard Henry Lee, against any pronounced extension of the powers of the general government, was in favor of giving to that government a perpetual grant of the authority to regulate commerce. But he wanted to have the custom-houses run by the States, thought duties as well as navigation laws should be fixed by Congress, and to have the money taken in from import duties go into the State treasuries. These commercial regulations should only be decided upon by a vote of nine States. This plan, though presented in Congress, hung fire. South Carolina, Georgia, and North Carolina were very doubtful about it. They had no ships. There were ten other States, each of which was more or less interested in getting the carrying trade for American vessels. Maryland had a fine port, and, like Delaware, built many ships. Even if Virginia should oppose it, a monopoly in the carrying of Southern products might be voted to Northern ship-owners under this plan. Virginia would also have it in her power to prohibit the slave-trade, to which she was opposed, though South Carolina and Georgia were interested in it. Richard Henry Lee led the opposition. Gerry, Holten and King, of Massachusetts, disobeyed their instructions and followed him. Temporarily the opposition was successful.

Negotiations with England for a reciprocal treaty were still going on. During this same year, Franklin, loaded down with years and honors, had gone to the Court of St. James, and had been presented to the King. He had said: "I shall esteem myself the happiest of men if I can be instrumental in recommending my country more and more to your majesty's royal benevolence, and of restoring the old good nature and the old good humor between people who, though separated by an ocean and under different governments, have the same language, a similar religion, and a kindred blood."

King George had replied: "I will be very frank with you. I was the last to consent to the separation, but, the separation having been made, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent power. The moment I see such sentiments and such language as yours prevail, and a disposition to give to this country the preference, that

moment I shall say, let the circumstances of language, religion and blood have their natural and full effect."

This was but the simple foxiness of a now worn-out and never very brilliant monarch. Franklin may have been deceived for a moment, but Adams, who had been in London during the recent past, knew better just what was to be expected from English diplomacy. He had felt and fully understood the character of that hatred which Jefferson had noted toward America on the part of Englishmen. He saw as clearly as anyone could see, that in trade, as in other forms of national intercourse, cannons are the best peacemakers. He was convinced that the logic of a club was alone suited to impress on John Bull the fact that America could not be crushed by invidious commercial assaults after she had won her liberty on the battle-field. He wrote to Jay, in June, 1785: "I may reason till I die, to no purpose. It is unanimity in America which will produce a fair treaty of commerce." His negotiations with the younger Pitt, then Premier, in August, had no result. England had but one answer behind all the fine phrases of her representatives: "You can assure us of nothing but what we already possess, and of what we possess you can take away nothing. Your Federal system is a rope of sand. Your Congress is confessedly impotent. There can be no bargain when the concession is all on one side."

France at the same time was complaining that she did not get what she ought to get of American trade. Her concessions to Jefferson, our representative at Paris, were grudgingly given, and amounted to little. The French threatened retaliation for the navigation laws of New Hampshire, and of Massachusetts and Rhode Island. With Frederick the Great, of Prussia, one year before his death, we did succeed in forming a convention for ten years. It meant nothing, because the two countries had practically no trade relations. We also made a treaty with the Emperor of Morocco. Spain would not deal with us. And at every court in Europe the same bitter, because truthful taunt was flung at our representatives, hurled from the lips of monarchs, dropped from the honeyed tongues of diplomatists, pointed by the pens of cruelly candid writers on the European press, echoed and re-echoed even by the street gamins of Paris, and the stevedores of the English capital, "Your Constitution is a rope of sand!"

At home there were several other controlling causes for constitutional agitation besides this need of power over commerce. It had been proven, as before stated, that the States might, or might not respond to the call of Congress for money. They had their own debts to look

out for, their own obligations to meet, their own credit to sustain. In most cases, the best men in each State were in favor of sustaining Congress, and of granting all Federal requisitions. But then, as now, the best men were not always in control of the State Legislatures. It was always easy to cavil at the form of a requisition, to object to the expenditures for which it was proposed, and then to use the power of taxation in such a way as to subserve some local scheme and indefinitely delay the payment of cash to the Federal Government. It happened, therefore, that the treasury of the United States was very often empty. A government, without any way of reaching the people by taxation, will frequently find its treasury in that condition. But a government without money to pay even the pettiest of expenses, is in a shape that warrants the contempt of all sober thinkers, and makes it perpetually a spectacle to angels and to men. The providing of an adequate revenue for national purposes, seemed to be generally recognized as necessary, and contributed largely to pressing on the public mind the need of a change of system.

Proper provision for the settlement and development of the immense territory which had come into the possession of the Confederation through the gifts of Virginia and other States, furnished another motive for action. Washington had early noted the possibility of territorial growth by the settlement of new States in the Northwest. In 1784 he spent thirty-three days in a tour through Western Virginia and Ohio, in order to personally investigate the feasibility of an artificial highway to unite the Potomac and the James with the Kanawha and the Ohio. He also thought seriously of a road uniting an affluent of the Ohio with the Cuyahoga river, making complete connection between the Atlantic seaboard, the mouth of the Mississippi, and the great lakes. He reported to Governor Harrison: "I need not remark to you, sir, that the flanks and rear of the United States are possessed by other powers, and formidable ones, too; nor how necessary it is to apply interest to bind all parts of the Union together by indissoluble bonds. The Western States,—I speak now from my own observation,—stand as it were on a pivot; the touch of a feather would turn them any way. They have looked down the Mississippi until the Spaniards threw difficulties in their way. The untoward disposition of the Spaniards on the one hand, and the policy of Great Britain on the other, to retain as long as possible the posts of Detroit, Niagara and Oswego, may be improved to the greatest advantage by this State if she would open the avenues to the trade of that country."

But the above explained impotency of Congress to deal with foreign nations on equal terms, left the settlers along both banks of the Ohio subject to perpetual menace until the Americans should become a nation; in fact, they could do little through the medium of the State governments, or by means of the half tied hands of Congress to complete such communications as Washington had suggested, or to "apply interest to bind all parts of the Union together."

Apart from the three causes above mentioned, there was one other which is entitled to rank with them. It was the necessity of preserving good faith in interstate commerce by preventing any State from passing laws annulling the obligation of contracts. This was utterly beyond the power of the Confederation, but, in the state of general poverty existing after the Revolution, its necessity was soon generally felt. There was absolutely no security for the merchant of one State doing business in another. Connecticut was first to issue paper money, and first to try to get rid of it, and to neutralize the injury which it had invented on her credit. New Hampshire's Legislature never issued paper money after peace was declared. Rhode Island tried to keep it up as late as 1786, but her merchants closed their shops, her courts declared the law unconstitutional, and the people sustained them after a hard fight. New York, after once getting clear of Continental money, reverted to the same plan in the same year. In the Council of Revision, Livingston favored a veto, but such action could not be agreed on, and the law went into effect. In 1786 also, New Jersey went back to this issue of paper money. One year before, Pennsylvania had emitted £50,000 in bills of credit, and had annulled the charter of the Bank of the United States, because it refused to receive these bills at par. It had also provided for the payment of certain debts by yearly installments. Delaware called in all her paper money in 1785. Maryland issued £30,000 in 1780, and passed several stay laws for the benefit of debtors, but refused to betake herself to paper money again in 1786. Georgia stayed execution in 1782, and having recalled all her other paper, redeeming it in specie at the rate of one thousand for one, issued £50,000 more in 1786. South Carolina took away the legal-tender quality from her paper in 1782, enacted a stay law, fixed a "table of depreciation," according to which debts could be settled, in 1783; arranged for payment in four annual installments, in 1784 and in 1785, passed the "barren land law," notorious in the annals of such legislation, under which the debtor might offer any portion of his landed estate, and the creditor was compelled to accept it at three-fourths of its appraised

valuation. Virginia had emitted many millions of paper money during the earlier years of the Revolution. She redeemed it in 1781 with loan certificates at the rate of one thousand to one, and passed several stay laws. For a time debts were payable in tobacco, hemp, flour, lands and negroes. But this was stopped in 1782. An attempt to pass an installment bill in 1786 was a failure. But in this year taxes were allowed to be paid in tobacco. Washington wrote: "These and suchlike things are extremely hurtful for if we mean to be honest, debts and taxes must be paid with the substance and not the shadow." North Carolina issued £100,000 of paper money in 1785. Massachusetts went back to specie in 1782, although she had to pass several stay laws, and their repeal led to the rebellion of Daniel Shay and his followers in the Western part of the State (1786). This synopsis shows the importance of the fourth of the most important causes which led to the adoption of the Constitution. All together constituted an irrefragible chain of evidence in proof of the proposition that the choice lay only betweeen absolute anarchy and the creation of an imperishable Union of indestructible States. How the latter was established, as well as how it has been supported through all the presidential administrations, will be shown in the ensuing chapters.

CHAPTER VII.

SIGNERS OF THE CONSTITUTION.

As has been conclusively shown in a preceding chapter, no body of statesmen ever assembled under conditions making more serious demands upon their patriotism, temperateness and unselfishness than those which confronted the members of the Constitutional Convention, which was called to order in the state-house at Philadelphia on Sept. 17, 1787. Other centuries must come and go before even the most diligent and the most philosophical of historians can gain a comprehensive view of the results which have sprung from the labors of that convention. Those results, even at present writing, have extended far beyond the limits of our own continent. They are by no means confined in their beneficence to the English-speaking nations of the earth. India's countless millions join with the natives of the Emerald Isle in demanding "those powers of local self-government

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which every State in the American Union possesses, and which Ireland does not possess." France is just beginning to see in a constitution analogous to ours a remedy for those evils which have been baffling her most disinterested statesmen ever since the First Directory. Every one of the South American republics has made our constitution its model rather than that great unwritten fundamental law of England, in spite of the fact that in reciprocal trade relations every one of those countries is closer to Great Britain than to the United States. Australia has united with the Dominion of Canada in requiring from the mother country almost absolute autonomy in local affairs. From Alaska to the Argentine Republic, and from Cape Colony to the Shetland Isles, is accepted our demonstration of the proposition that *E pluribus unum* means nothing but the only perpetuity practicable for the rightful powers of the many. This leaven is still working. What has been done we can imperfectly analyze. What is to be, is beyond our ken.

The men who forged this hammer which was to deliver mankind from oppression by breaking down forever the labyrinthine walls of that ancient superstition that law and order are incompatible with liberty, were excellent types of the American civilization of a hundred years ago. Of the lives of many of them, we have but little record. In some cases, dates of births are uncertain. In some, even the year of death is unknown. Often, the historian finds no trace of any public service performed outside of the convention. Some giants are noted, of course. Europe vies with America in honoring Franklin's memory. Washington's name adds lustre even to the work done at Philadelphia in 1787. No student of governmental development in general can ignore Alexander Hamilton; and Patrick Henry, though not a signer of the Constitution, divides with James Madison, its great exponent, the honor of having contributed most valuable suggestions while the convention was in session. Jay, too, though not a delegate, has a name inseparably associated with that momentous document. But the majority of the delegates are hardly known, even by name, to the average American. This is not as it should be. The following sketches are as full as the information that was at hand would warrant. They contain all known facts about the lives of the signers of the Constitution. Neither Washington nor Madison is included here, because biographical sketches of both will be found with those of other Presidents of the United States in another chapter.

It would be unfair not to mention here some of the most prom-

inent members of the convention, who, for various reasons, did not affix their names to the Constitution after it had been drawn up. The document was, of course, a compromise. Ideas of those who finally opposed it were conditions which its framers could not afford to overlook, and did not overlook. Divisions in the convention were on several different lines. Small States were jealous of large ones. Georgia and South Carolina were distrustful of New England Puritanism. New York had established a custom-house of her own, and had a direct selfish interest in keeping from the general government that power to regulate commerce, which was regarded as essential to it, by all the other States. Within each one of the commonwealths there was an issue between those who believed in absolute localization of power, and those who held to the theory of centralization. The latter difference was the one on which the division between Federalists and Republicans was based, and which may fairly be held to have been maintained as the real issue between great parties under various party names up to the present time. It is not just, therefore, to condemn the men who failed to sign the Constitution, and those who opposed it in the various State conventions. Patrick Henry was one of the foremost of its opponents in Virginia. A purer patriot never lived. Edmund Randolph, one of the most valuable members of the convention, refused to sign. Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, did the same. He honestly believed that the rights of the people were inadequately guaranteed. George Mason, of Virginia, the intimate friend and neighbor of Washington, agreed with Gerry. Caleb Strong, of Massachusetts, Oliver Ellsworth, of Connecticut, William Churchill Houston, of New Jersey, George Wythe and James McClurg, of Virginia, John Francis Mercer, of Maryland, Luther Martin, of New Jersey, Alexander Martin, of North Carolina, and William Richardson Davies, of South Carolina, and William Pierce William Houstoun, of Georgia, did not sign because they were not present on the last day of the convention.

The action of Yates and Lansing, of New York, in withdrawing from the convention, met with a large amount of contemporaneous criticism. It left Hamilton alone, without a vote, and disfranchised New York absolutely. But the characters of the delegates who went out do not warrant the theory that their motive was to flourish as demagogues on the sentiment in favor of keeping up New York's custom-house at the expense of the permanent interests of the whole American people. It is more charitable to believe that, like Randolph and Mason and Gerry, they were sincere, though mistaken patriots.

This course, however, led to the new combinations in the convention. On the question of delaying the abolition of the slave-trade, and of slave representation, Maryland, Delaware, South Carolina, and Georgia were on one side ; Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, New Jersey and Pennsylvania were on the other. Virginia and North Carolina held the balance of power after New York was left without a vote. The former was controlled by men who were opposed to slavery on principle. The latter was divided. With New York's vote in the affirmative, there is little doubt that the slave-trade would have been immediately abolished, and that each State would have had a representation based on its voting population. South Carolina and Georgia wanted a full representation of the slave population, and preferred no restriction of the trade. Virginia stood in the breach when New York had withdrawn. Her delegation, made up of men more devoted to the general interest than to the specific interest of Virginia, or of their own estates, men who commanded universal respect because of their talents as well as their unselfishness, were inclined to consent to nothing which could be expected to endanger the future of the republic, or to throw doubt upon the consistency of those who were advocating liberty for all men. So the compromise was secured, which gave Congress power to stop the slave-trade in 1808, though it left to the States all action with reference to the institution of slavery within their borders.

It was decided, after much debate, not to leave the ratification of the Constitution to State Legislatures, because what one Legislature had accepted, another might, with equal propriety, reject. State conventions were to be called for the purpose of making such ratifications. Thus the people of each State, and not the State as a governmental entity, were to accept the Constitution.

Debates in the Convention covered a great range of topics, and involved dissension on small as well as great matters. But as a rule they were thoroughly dignified in their tone. Mason, the Virginian opponent of slavery, was one of the most earnest debaters on the issue of slave representation. He was opposed from the bottom of his soul to any recognition of what he regarded as a National curse in the Nation's fundamental law. It is rather a curious fact that on this point he was met with the ironical opposition of Oliver Ellsworth of Connecticut, who thought any possible solution of this question better than anarchy.

Here are the signatures of members of the convention exactly as affixed to the Constitution :

G. Washington Pres.t
and Deputy from Virginia

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

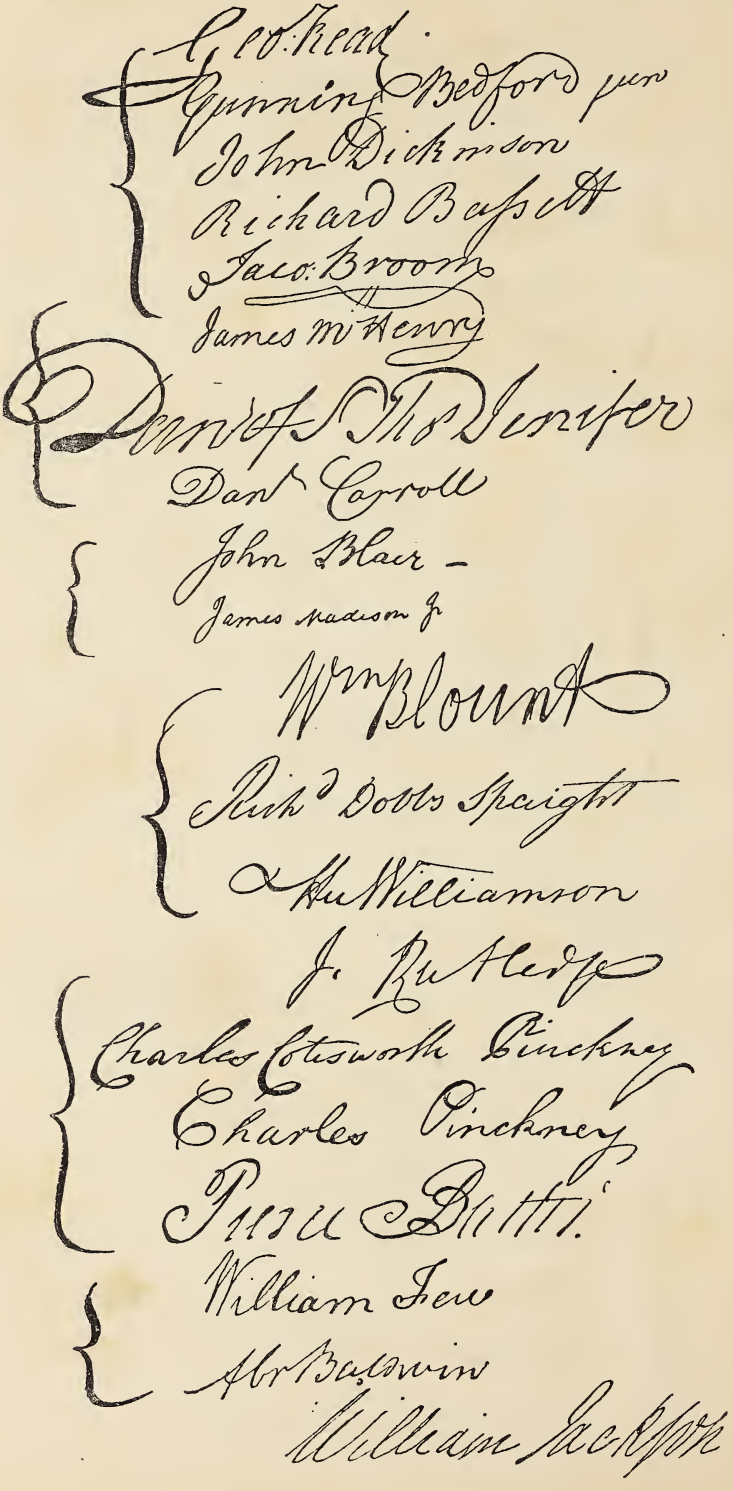
Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

Wm. Sam.l Johnson
Roger Sherman

Alexander Hamilton

Wl. Livingston
David Brearley
Wm. Paterson
Jona. Dayton

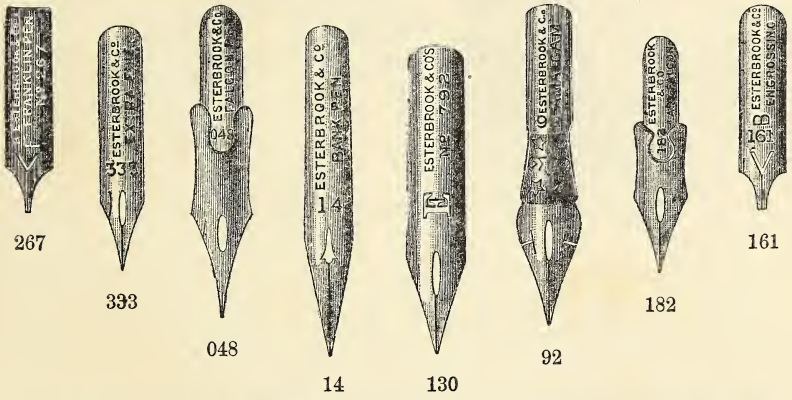
B. Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robt. Morris
Geo. Clymer
Tho.s FitzSimons
Jared Ingersoll
James Wilson.
Gouv. Morris


Geo: Read.
Gunning Bedford jun
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jaco: Broom
James M'Henry
Dan'l of St Tho Jenifer
Dan'l Carroll
John Blair
James Madison Jr
Wm Blount
Richd Dobbs Spaight
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J. Rutledge
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RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT.

NORTH CAROLINA.

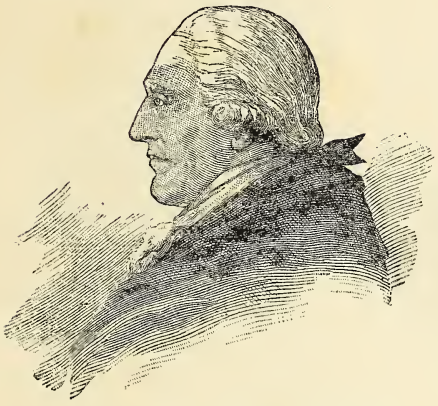


RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT.

RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT was born at Newbern, North Carolina, in 1758. He was a son of weathy parents and was sent abroad at the age of nine years to be educated. He did not return to his country until 1778—two years after the Declaration of Independence had been signed and the Revolutionary war begun. He was then only twenty years of age, but his sympathies were strongly aroused on behalf of the colonies, and he at once repaired to the camp of Gov. Caswell and joined the army. He was made one of the Govenor's Aids and participated with distinction in the battle of Camden. From 1781 to 1783 he was a member of the State Legislature, and in the latter year was elected a delegate to Congress. He served in Congress until 1786, and was then chosen as one of the delegates from North Carolina to the Constitutional Convention. Spaight was the youngest of all the delegates who took an active part in the deliberations of that body. He was in favor of a presidential term of seven years instead of four, and proposed the election of United States Senators by the Legislatures of the several States. Though not altogether suited by the form of Government at last determined upon, he supported it warmly both in and out of the convention. He failed, however, in 1788, to stem the tide of sentiment against the Constitution in his own State. After living for several years in the West Indies, in order to regain his health, he was Governor of his State for three years—1792 to 1795—and a member of Congress from 1798 to 1801. Beaten for re-election he was challenged by John Stanley, his successful competitor, and was mortally wounded in a duel on September 5th, 1802. He died before the day was over.

DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER.

MARYLAND.

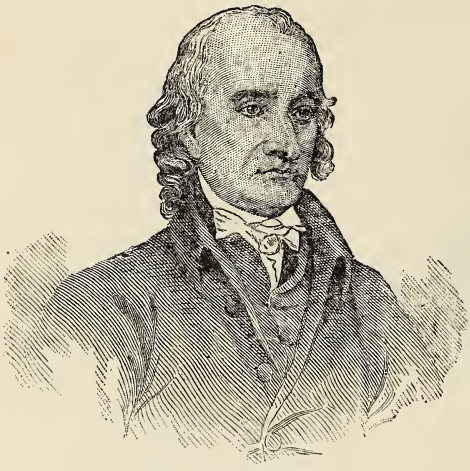


DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER.

Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer was born in 1733. He was a native of Maryland, a colony which had been the first to accept those principles of religious equality upon which the new Constitution came to be so largely founded. Made up in large measure of English Catholics, upon whom the ban of proscription had been laid by a State Church, the colonists of Maryland had no desire to similarly persecute any other sect. Unlike the Puritans of Massachusetts, it cannot truly be said of them that they came to America in order to gain an opportunity of worshipping God in accordance with the dictates of their own consciences and of preventing other people from doing the same. Their logical liberality found a parallel only in that of Roger Williams, who had founded the Providence Plantations on exactly the same principles. In such a state of society, no section of the people being barred out from participation in the honors of the state or in their emoluments, merit was sure to come to the front, and it is not remarkable that such men as Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer made themselves felt. In brilliant statesmen Maryland was not so rich as Virginia. But the men prominent in the politics of the former colony were remarkable for their God-fearing integrity. Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer was a man of liberal education, and had, even before the Revolution, been prominent in the politics of the colony. He served in Congress from 1778 to 1782, and was one of the most valuable members of that body. He was a regular attendant on the sessions of the Constitutional Convention. He died in 1790.

HUGH WILLIAMSON.

NORTH CAROLINA.



HUGH WILLIAMSON.

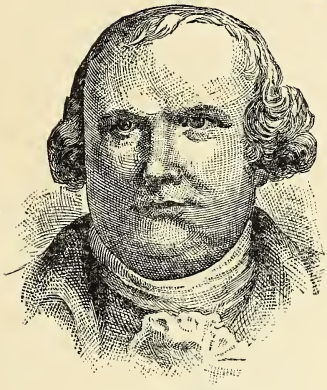
HUGH WILLIAMSON, of North Carolina, was born of Irish parents in Chester Co., Penn., in 1735. His early education was a thorough one, and after careful preparatory training he entered the College of Philadelphia, from which institution he graduated in 1757. He began at once the study of Divinity, and secured a license to preach, but as nearly as can be learned from the fragments of his biography handed down to posterity, his work in the pulpit and in the parish was satisfactory neither to himself nor his friends. After much prayerful consideration of the subject he decided to study medicine, and carried out that resolve. In the work and the science of a physician he was more than ordinarily successful. Appointed Professor of Medicine in his own Alma Mater in 1760, he spent four years there and then went to Europe with the purpose of studying at Edinburgh, London and Utrecht. From the University in the latter city he obtained the degree of M. D. On his return to Philadelphia he soon secured an excellent practice, was chosen a member of the American Philosophical Society, and was one of the commissioners of that society to observe the transit of Venus in 1767. He visited the West Indies in 1772, and then went to London with the idea of procuring assistance for an Academy at Newark, N. J. While there in 1774 he was examined before the Privy Council on the subject of that famous "tea-party in Boston Harbor." He settled at Edenton, North Carolina, in 1777, having gone there with a younger brother who was engaged in business. He was made Medical Director of the North Carolina forces in 1779, and was elected in 1782 to the House of Commons and afterwards to Congress, in which he served one term under the Constitution. He died in New York in 1819.

CHAPTER VIII.

SIGNERS OF THE CONSTITUTION—*Continued.*

ROBERT MORRIS.

PENNSYLVANIA.



ROBERT MORRIS.

Robert Morris, of Pennsylvania, born in England, in 1734 and was brought to this country by his father when a child. They settled first in Maryland, but afterwards came to Philadelphia, when the boy entered the establishment of Charles Willing, a well known merchant, and was admitted to a partnership in 1754. The firm became the most prosperous importing house in the colonies and was not dissolved until 1793. No man made greater personal sacrifices than Robert Morris in helping to secure liberty for America. The largest of importers he opposed the Stamp Act and signed the non-importation agreement. He was vice-



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president of the Committee of Safety, until the dissolution of that body in 1776. Morris appears to have had some doubt as to the advisability of the Declaration of Independence. He voted against it first, and remained away from the session on July 4th, 1776. But on August 2, when the engrossed copy of the Declaration had been received, he affixed his signature, in order to show that he had not been actuated, in his reluctance by any motives of personal expediency. During the Revolution, an Italian historian has said, that the Americans owed as much to the financial operations of Morris as to the diplomatism of Franklin, or the arms of George Washington. He was made Superintendent of Finance in 1781, and in accepting the position, said, "The United States may command everything I have except my integrity." He used his own funds freely for the public service. The Bank of North America was established by him. He was chosen United States Senator in 1788, having declined the Secretaryship of the Treasury. Speculation made him poor, and he spent three years in a debtors' prison. He died in 1806.

WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON.

CONNECTICUT.



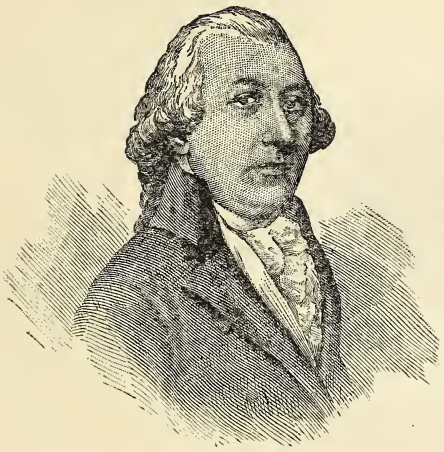
WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON.

One of the most scholarly members of the convention was William Samuel Johnson, of Connecticut. Born at Stratford, in 1727, he was the son of a college President, who had resigned the management of King's College, N. Y., and graduated himself at Yale College, his father's Alma Mater, in 1744. Mr. Johnson studied law, and after his admission to the bar distinguished himself by eloquence as a pleader, and effectiveness as a cross-examiner. His first official position was that of delegate in the Provincial Congress, to which he was elected in 1765. He lived in England as the agent of his colony from 1766 to 1771, was a judge of Connecticut's Supreme Court from 1772 to 1774, and after the Revolution served in

the Continental Congress from 1784 to 1787. In the Constitutional Convention Mr. Johnson was the first to suggest the Senate, an independent legislative body, as a feature of the form of government to be adopted. He was a firm believer in the English theory, of a double-house Legislature, and his ideas were accepted. After the Constitution went into effect Mr. Johnson was made United States Senator from his State, and was one of the hardest workers in developing the bill upon which the whole of the judiciary system of the United States is founded. He was President of Columbia College for eleven years, from 1789 to 1800. He died at a ripe old age, on Nov. 14, 1819.

JOHN LANGDON.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.



JOHN LANGDON.

John Langdon, of New Hampshire, was 48 years of age when the Constitutional Covention met. A native of Portsmouth, he had only the advantage of a common-school education supplemented by a mercantile training that early made him one of the foremost men in the commercial circles of his own colony. He was also one of the first to espouse the Revolutionary cause. With John Sullivan he assisted in carrying off the military stores from Fort William and Mary in 1774. He was chosen a member of the Continental Congress one year later, but soon resigned to become a Navy Agent. Then he became speaker of the Colonial Legislature, and afterwards a Judge of the Court of Common Pleas. Mr. Langdon was a close personal friend of Gen. Stark, and pledged his own property to raise money for the expedition which resulted in the victory at Bennington. He served himself in the army afterwards. In 1779 he was President of the State Constitutional Convention. He went back to Congress in 1783, and in 1785 was elected "President" of New Hampshire. After the document which made the United States a Nation had gone into ef-

fect, Mr. Langdon was made Temporary President of the first Federal Congress, and in that capacity notified Gen. Washington of his election to the Presidency. As Governor of New Hampshire, and then as United States Senator, he maintained his claim to the respect of his fellow citizens. He declined the Secretaryship of the Navy in 1811, and the Vice-Presidency of the United States in 1812. He died on Sept. 18, 1819.

ROGER SHERMAN.

CONNECTICUT.



ROGER SHERMAN.

Roger Sherman, of Connecticut, was a native of Newton, Massachusetts, and was born in 1721. He represented the wisdom of the common people rather than the knowledge of the upper classes in the Convention. Mr. Sherman was a shoemaker by trade, and, because of the death of his father, had been compelled, at an early age, to assume the support of his mother and of several younger children. The spirit of study and of self improvement led him to fit himself for the position of County Surveyor, which he held for several years. He studied law long after he had reached middle life, and so great was his power of application, together with his natural capacity, that he rose to be a Judge of the Supreme Court. He was terse, not ornate, in speech; and a cogent thinker. Mr. Sherman was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and a member of the Continental Congress during the war. His work in codifying the laws of Connecticut in 1783 was of lasting service to the State. He signed the Articles of Association of Congress and the Articles of Confederation, as well as the Declaration and the Constitution; and is said to be the only man whose name appears on all four of those documents. Jefferson used to say of Roger Sherman, that he never said a foolish thing in his life. Mr. Sherman died on July 23, 1793, at New Haven, Connecticut.

JAMES WILSON.

PENNSYLVANIA.



JAMES WILSON.

James Wilson, of Pennsylvania, was born in 1740, and was a native of Scotland. He had had a thorough education in the greatest universities of his native country before he emigrated to America in 1761, at the age of twenty-one years. He went first to New York, but finding that his classical acquirements were not fully appreciated there he removed, after about five years, to Philadelphia, where, for a time, he served as tutor in the City College. He then studied law in the office of John Dickinson. and tried the practice of his profession in several smaller towns—Reading, Carlisle and Annapolis, without much success. He

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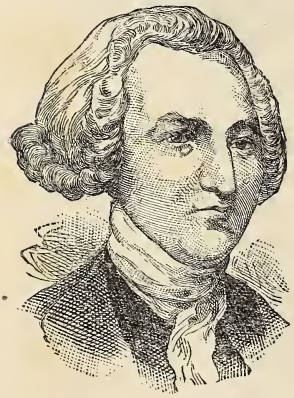
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returned to Philadelphia and was admitted to the bar there in 1778. During and after the Revolution he was for six years a member of Congress. He was a brilliant orator as well as a learned man, and in the Constitutional Convention made himself felt as one of the strongest men on the Pennsylvania delegation. In the State Convention called to ratify the Constitution Wilson was a most prominent figure. His influence is sometimes credited with having prevented the rejection of the document by that body. Appointed as an Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court by President Washington, in 1789, he resigned in 1790 to take charge of the Law Department in the University of Pennsylvania. He felt that no man's energies could be better spent than in the instruction of youth. Like Robert Morris, James Wilson was reduced to financial ruin by land speculation. He was thrown into a debtor's prison on the suit of Pierce Butler, who had served with him in the Constitutional Convention. For months he lay there, broken in body and in mind, and when Mr. Butler finally ordered his release he died before it could be accomplished. His death occurred in 1798.

JOHN DICKINSON.

DELAWARE.



JOHN DICKINSON.

JOHN DICKINSON, of Delaware, was born in Maryland in 1732. His father was a man of wealth who had sent two older sons to be educated in England. Both had died there, and the father decided, for his youngest son, to be satisfied with the educational institutions of the colonies. Soon after the birth of the latter. the family removed to Dover, Delaware. The son, after completing his scholastic training, studied law in the office of John Moland, at Philadelphia, and then went to England, where he spent three years at the Temple, in London, to give himself greater familiarity with the common law. He returned to this country and began the practice of law in the city where he had first studied. He was sent to the Assembly of Pennsylvania in 1764, and in 1765 was a member of the general Congress which met in New York to protest against English tyranny. Two

years later Dickinson published his "Farmer's Letters" on the illegality of British taxation, which were so widely read and produced so profound an impression that their author soon took rank among the most effective of American writers. They were translated into French, and were also published in England with a preface by Benjamin Franklin. In 1774 Dickinson became a member of Congress. He refused to sign the Declaration of Independence in 1776, but took up arms in behalf of liberty in 1777, and was made a brigadier-general in the service of Pennsylvania by Gov. McKean. He went back to Congress in 1779, in 1780 was elected President of Delaware, and in 1782 was made President of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania. In 1785 he permanently removed to Delaware. His nine "Fabius" letters in favor of the Constitution were very effective. He died in 1808.

GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

PENNSYLVANIA.



GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

GOUVERNEUR MORRIS, of Pennsylvania, was born in Morrisania, N. Y., in 1752. He enjoyed the best education that the colonies afforded, and graduated with high honors from Columbia College at the age of sixteen years. Then he studied law in the office of Wm. Smith, a well-known barrister, who afterwards became Chief Justice of the Province of New York. At the age of nineteen years, in 1771, he was admitted to the Provincial bar. In 1775, after devoting a great deal of attention to public affairs, Mr. Morris was elected a member of the Provincial Congress, and three years later was sent to the Continental Congress. The delegates of New York were not empowered to sign the Declaration of Independence until after the meeting of the State Convention on July 9, 1776. On that day the convention, having received a copy of the Declaration, passed a resolution of approval, and directed Gouverneur Morris to

write an answer notifying the delegates of this action. Mr. Morris was known as one of the earliest opponents of domestic slavery in New York State, and look a large part in drafting the Constitution of that State. In 1778, as a member of Congress, he was made a member of several committees on military supplies, and became a close personal friend of General Washington. Deserted by his own family because of his zeal in behalf of the patriot cause, he made up his mind to take up a permanent residence in Philadelphia. He lost a leg because of an accident in 1780. He was Assistant Superintendent of Finance under Robert Morris for three and a half years. In 1788, he went to France, and was the only member of the diplomatic corps who remained in Paris. On his return to America he was elected a member of the United States Senate from New York, after again becoming a resident of Morrisania. He died in 1816.

WILLIAM LIVINGSTON.

NEW JERSEY.



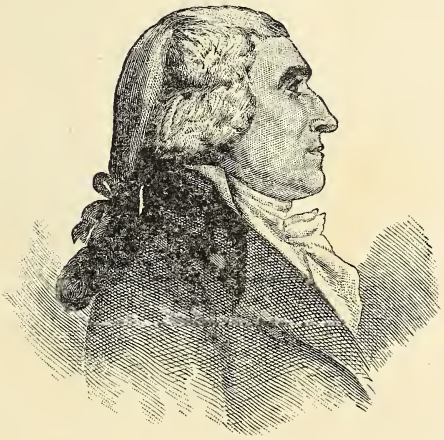
WILLIAM LIVINGSTON.

William Livingston, of New Jersey, was born in 1723, at Albany, New York. In company with a missionary, he spent some years of his boyhood life with the Mohawk Indians, but during that period his studies were not neglected, and at the age of a little over fifteen years, in 1837, he entered Yale College, immediately taking high rank in his class and graduating at its head. He studied law in the office of James Alexander, in New York City. His circumstances were easy, and his law practice did not interfere with a great deal of literary work and political effort, for which Mr. Livingston was admirably adapted. He engaged in polemical controversies with the leading minds of his day, and his poems are among the most graceful, as well as the most spirited effusions of America's earlier literature. He did not go into political life until after his removal from New York to New Jersey, where he was elected in 1784 to represent the latter State in the Con-

tinental Congress. In 1775 he was made a Brigadier-General in command of all the New Jersey forces, and in 1776 was elected Governor, in which capacity it is related that he refused the position of Postmaster to a certain applicant because the latter had refused to accept Continental money. During the Revolution the biting sarcasm of Livingston's pen exasperated the Tories, and many unavailing efforts were made by British troops to seize his person. In 1785 he declined the appointment by Congress as Minister to Holland. After 1787 he was again chosen Governor of New Jersey, and died in 1790 while holding that office.

JONATHAN DAYTON.

NEW JERSEY.



JONATHAN DAYTON.

Jonathan Dayton, of New Jersey, was born in 1760, at Elizabethtown, in that colony. He was, of course, a mere boy at the time the Revolutionary war began, but he came of good old Revolutionary stock, and his father, Elias Dayton, was one of the first of the New Jersey patriots to fling down the gauntlet of resistance to royal oppression. The latter entered the army of Washington and was one of the General's most trusted lieutenants. He rose to the position of colonel, and then to that of general in a very short time. His valor as well as his coolness was displayed upon the field at Brandywine, at Germantown and at Monmouth. Jonathan, his son, in spite of his youth, insisted on going into the army, and did his own share of the fighting, undergoing, at the same time, all the hardships and privations that fell to the lot of a private soldier. He was popular with all who came in contact with him, and a young man of great steadiness of purpose, as well as of ardent patriotism. After the war was over, Jonathan Dayton came into prominence in civic life, and was chosen to a number of offices of strictly local importance, which, nevertheless, brought out into full relief the confidence which his

neighbors felt in him. His work in the Constitutional Convention was hard and faithful, though his position was not that of a leader. In 1791 he was sent to Congress as a Federalist. For four years, from 1793 to 1797, he was Speaker of the House, and was then chosen United States Senator. His death occurred in 1824.

CHAPTER VIII.

SIGNERS OF THE CONSTITUTION.—*Continued.*

GUNNING BEDFORD.

DELAWARE.

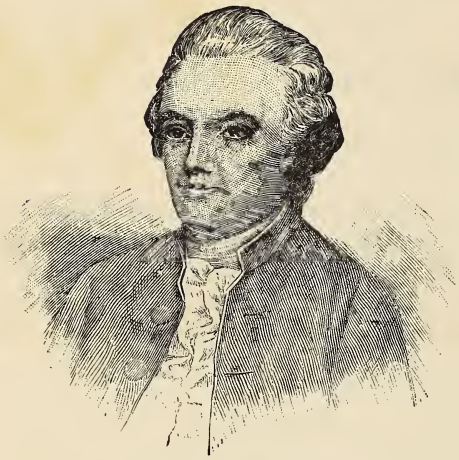


GUNNING BEDFORD.

GUNNING BEDFORD, JR., of Delaware, was a native of Philadelphia, and was born in 1747. He was of pure English descent, and a man of considerable influence in the little colony to which he removed. He had enjoyed a good education at one of the smaller colleges which had sprung up in New Jersey, having graduated from Nassau Hall in 1771, with the highest honors of his class. Very little else is known about Bedford's youth, but it would not appear that he was a precocious boy, for he must have been twenty-four years of age at the time he received the degree of Master of Arts, and before he was able to begin his study of the law. He went at once into an office in Philadelphia, which might fairly be regarded as the centre of legal culture at that period, and which had at its bar men fully the equals of those great lawyers who made the same period illustrious in the mother country. After admission to the bar, Bedford soon took up his residence in Delaware, and it was not long before he had secured a first-class practice. He was a sterling patriot throughout the Revolutionary period, and was chosen by his fellow citizens to several places of trust: Attorney-General, member of the Legislature, and member of Congress. He had the confidence of Washington, and after the adoption of the Constitution was appointed by the latter as the first Judge of the District Court of the United States for the district of Delaware. He was an exemplary man in every way, and one who commanded the universal respect of those who knew him. Bedford held the office of District Judge until his death, which occurred in 1812, just before the beginning of the second war with England.

CHARLES PINCKNEY.

SOUTH CAROLINA.



CHARLES PINCKNEY.

CHARLES PINCKNEY, of South Carolina, was born at Charleston in 1758. He received as good an education as his native town afforded, and then studied law in the office of his father. He was chosen a member of the State Legislature in 1779, and one year later was made a prisoner by the British forces. He too experienced the harshest treatment from his captors. Sent to St. Augustine, Fla., soon after his capture, he was for a considerable time confined on board a prison-ship. After the war had ended, he returned to the Charleston bar, but in 1785 was chosen to represent his State in Congress, a position which he held for three years. During that period he served as a member of the Constitutional Convention with great honor to himself and with credit to his State. A form of government, drawn up by Charles Pinckney, was one of the sources from which the Constitution was compiled, and it may fairly be said that he showed greater powers of constructive statesmanship than any other of the distinguished men who made up the South Carolina delegation. In the State Convention, called to ratify the Constitution, he was one of the ablest speakers in its favor. He was chosen Governor in 1789, and in 1790 was President of the Constitutional Convention. He served as Governor until 1798, and was then elected to the United States Senate. In 1801 he was made minister to Spain. In 1805 he returned to America and was at once elected to the State Legislature, and then to the Governorship. In 1818 he became a member of Congress and was an active opponent of the Missouri Compromise, against which he made a speech which was regarded by his colleagues as the most effective of his life. He died in 1824.

WILLIAM FEW.

GEORGIA.

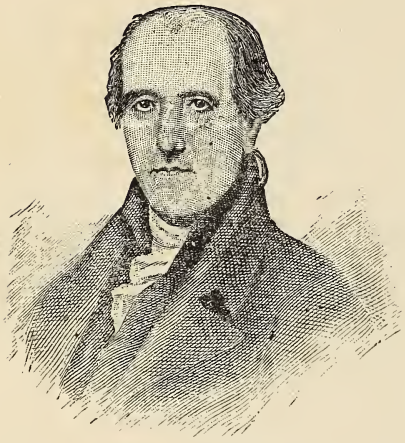


WILLIAM FEW.

William Few, of Georgia, was a native of Maryland, and was born in Baltimore County, in 1748. When he was ten years of age his father's family removed to the State of North Carolina. His early youth was hampered by the severest influences of poverty, and he was given the advantage of only a year's attendance at the village school. The son of a farmer, he was expected to give all his time to the daily tasks laid out for him, and no boy of the time ever struggled harder for an opportunity to improve himself. The books that came into his hands were very few, but moved by an insatiable anxiety to learn, he spent all of his spare time in study. He used to attend the sessions of the County Court when he could get a chance to do so, and it was there that he gained the first rudiments of legal knowledge. In 1776 he removed to Georgia, and soon afterwards was chosen a member of the Executive Council. He joined the militia force of Georgia when the State was invaded and was made Lieutenant-Colonel of a Richmond County regiment. From 1778 to 1780 he was a member of the State Legislature, and then served in Congress until 1783. He was re-elected to Congress in 1786, and in the same year chosen a member of the Constitutional Convention. He served as United States Senator from Georgia from 1789 to 1793. He then began the practice of law, and in 1799 decided to remove to the State of New York, when he took up his residence at Fishkill. From 1801 to 1804 he served in the Legislature of the Empire State. He died in 1828.

JARED INGERSOLL.

PENNSYLVANIA.



JARED INGERSOLL.

JARED INGERSOLL, of Pennsylvania, was born in 1750, at New Haven, Connecticut. He was the son of one of the most ardent patriots of the land of steady habits, and after receiving a thorough education, had spent some years in England in the study of his profession. He early showed talents calculated to make him a leading light at the bar, and his eloquence was famed throughout the country, when at the age of 28 years, in 1778, he was induced to remove to Philadelphia. Mr. Ingersoll did not hesitate to avow himself an adherent of the Colonial cause, and he was one of the numerous solid men of Philadelphia who gave to the patriotic party in that city a social standing far superior to that which it enjoyed in New York or even in Boston. He did not at first approve of the idea of absolute independence from Great Britain, but the logic of events soon brought him over to that side of the question. He never held any position in connection with the general government, either before or after the sessions of the Constitutional Convention. He never held any other place in any popular or representative body. In that Convention he spoke but little. When he said anything it was on behalf of the Hamiltonian theory of government so generally favored by the Pennsylvania delegates. Mr. Ingersoll is looked upon as having been the best lawyer of his time in the management of a jury trial. He was the first Attorney General of Pennsylvania, and held the place under Gov. Mifflin for nine years. For a short time he was President of the District Court of Philadelphia. He died in 1822.

NATHANIEL GORHAM.

MASSACHUSETTS.



NATHANIEL GORHAM.

NATHANIEL GORHAM, of Massachusetts, was born at Charlestown in 1738. He attended the common schools, but did not receive a university education, and early entered business in his native town. He won the esteem of his fellow citizens, and was made a Town Councillor in 1771 at a time when the spirit of resistance to tyranny was just beginning to ferment in the bosom of the Bay State men, preparing them for the stirring events of Concord and Lexington and Bunker Hill. Then Mr. Gorham became a member of the Legislature, and afterwards a member of the State Board of War, in which he took an active part in raising resources for carrying on the war. He was a delegate to the State Constitutional Convention in 1779, and President of Congress from 1785 to 1787. In

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the Constitutional Convention he played an important part owing to the desire of General Washington to take part in debate upon the floor. The latter asked Mr. Gorham to take the chair while the body was in Committee of the Whole. For three months the Massachusetts delegate proved himself an efficient, firm and temperate presiding officer, and justified the trust reposed in him by the great Virginian. After the work of the Convention was over Mr. Gorham did good work in securing the adoption of the Constitution by his own State. He was elected a judge of the Court of Common Pleas, and retained that office until his death on June 11, 1796.

NICHOLAS GILMAN.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.



NICHOLAS GILMAN.

The youngest member of the Convention was Nicholas Gilman, of New Hampshire. He was born in 1762, and was a son of Nicholas Gilman, State Treasurer of New Hampshire. Mr. Gilman, though but 25 years of age, impressed himself upon his colleagues in the Constitutional Convention by his grasp of the questions involved, as well as by the fervency of his patriotism. He was at that time a lawyer in first-rate practice in his own State, and is said to have been one of the best in the country. Those who saw him for the first time, thought him only a boy. His face had none of the hardened lines of mature manhood, but when he took part in conversation or in debate everyone was surprised at the comprehensive knowledge and sound sense displayed by this youthful son of the Granite State. A mere child at the time when the Revolutionary Rubicon was passed in 1776, he had about him none of the traditional feelings of a man who had once owed allegiance to an English King. He represented Young America in what may now be regarded, in the light of results, as the greatest of all the deliberative bodies whose sessions are mentioned in the world's history. Mr. Gilman was elected to the First Federal Congress, and served in the capacity of Congressman till 1797. In 1805 he became United States Senator, and held that position until his death, which occurred at the age of 52 years, on May 2, 1814.

WILLIAM PATERSON.

NEW JERSEY.



WILLIAM PATERSON.

William Paterson, of New Jersey, was born in Ireland in 1744. He was but two years of age when his parents came to America. They settled at Trenton, and it was there that the early youth of their son was passed. He attended the public schools at Trenton, and afterward at Princeton and Raritan, now known as Somerville, to which the family successively removed. Then he went to Princeton College, and in 1763 graduated with high honors. He studied law with Richard Stockton, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and soon secured a good practice. He was elected a member of the Continental Congress in 1775 and became the Attorney General of his State one year later. Elected a member of Congress again and then re-elected, he resigned in 1783 to return to his legal work. He was looked upon as leader among the delegates of New Jersey to the Constitutional Convention, and was the sponsor of that "New Jersey" form of Government which was finally adopted with modifications, and which preserved the sovereignties of the States, in contradistinction to the "Virginia" plan, which was offered by Edmund Randolph, and which, in effect, established a national and centralized government. After the adoption of the Constitution, Mr. Paterson was elected United States Senator, then Governor of the State, and at length was appointed a Judge on the bench of the United States Supreme Court, which position he was filling at the time of his death in the year 1806.

RICHARD BASSETT.

DELAWARE.



RICHARD BASSETT.

Richard Bassett was the only member of the Delaware delegation to the Constitutional Convention who was born in the territory now comprised in that State. He was, like Bedford, a lawyer in good practice, at the beginning of the Revolution, and was a member of Congress during the Confederation period. Bassett was for a long time in close correspondence with the most prominent men of his day, and from 1783 up to the adoption of the Constitution, his correspondence had borne upon the topics so close to the hearts of all real statesmen of that age—the establishment of a more satisfactory form of Union. Like Washington and Hamilton and Franklin, he was deeply impressed with the dangers to be anticipated from the laxness of the Confederation. He was made one of the Delaware Commissioners to the Ananpolis Convention of 1786, and there had an opportunity to personally compare views with those men whom he had corresponded with. In the Constitutional Convention he devoted most of his energies to securing for Delaware and other small States an equal representation in the Senate of the United States. He was elected United States Senator, but resigned to take the place of Chief Justice of the State Court of Common Pleas. As a Presidential elector, in 1797, he cast his vote for John Adams, the Federalist candidate. From 1798 to 1801 he was Governor of his State. He then became a United States Circuit Judge. Richard Bassett's daughter married James A. Bayard, afterwards a United States Senator, and he was, therefore, a direct ancestor of the historic family of Bayards, to which ex-Secretary of State Bayard belongs. He died in 1815.

ABRAHAM BALDWIN.

GEORGIA.



ABRAHAM BALDWIN.

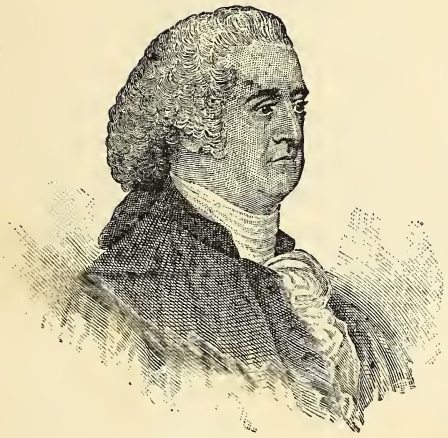
Abraham Baldwin, of Georgia, was a native of Connecticut, born in 1754. He fitted for college in the village school, and entered Yale College in 1768, graduating therefrom in 1772. From 1775 to 1779 he served as tutor in the same institution, and in 1781 declined both the Professorship of Divinity and the position of College Pastor. For a very short time he was chaplain of a regiment in the Colonial army. He opened a school of his own and spent all the time he had to spare in studying law. His emigration to Georgia took place in 1784, and soon after securing citizenship there, he was admitted to the bar. That he made friends very rapidly among his new neighbors is attested by the fact that he was elected to the Legislature within three months after his admission to the bar. In the Legislature he introduced a bill to incorporate the University of Georgia at Milledgeville, and on the campus of that institution he shares with John Milledge, its founder, the honor of a marble pillar erected to commemorate their services. For a time Baldwin was president of the college. In 1785 he was elected to Congress. He was a warm friend of the Constitution, but after it had been adopted became a member of the Strict-Construction or Democratic Party. He served in Congress till 1799, and in the United States Senate until 1807. The poet Joel Barlow was a brother-in-law of Baldwin, and Henry Baldwin, a Judge of the United States Supreme Court, was his half-brother. Senator Baldwin appears to have enjoyed the universal confidence of the people of Georgia. He died at Washington on March 4, 1307.

CHAPTER X.

SIGNERS OF THE CONSTITUTION.—*Continued.*

JOHN RUTLEDGE.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

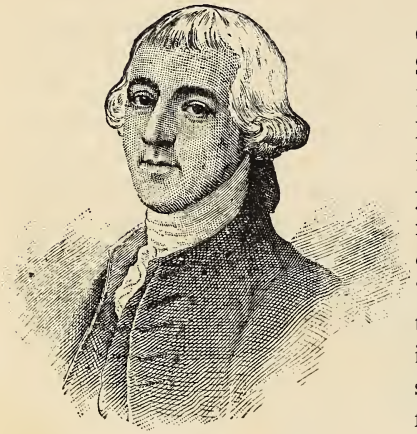


JOHN RUTLEDGE.

John Rutledge, of South Carolina, was born in 1736, and was the son of parents who had come to this country from Ireland. Of all the representatives of the South he was the most eloquent, and his influence on the Constitutional Convention was a positive one. He had had an excellent classical education, and had studied law in the Temple in London before he settled down to legal practice in Charleston, where he soon secured a large and influential clientage. He was chosen a member of the Congress that met in New York in 1765, and in that body was one of the most fearless as well as one of the most effective speakers in denuncation of the Stamp Act and of all similar forms of British oppression. His next appearance in public life was in the capacity of a member of the Continental Congress in 1774. For two years he held this position, but the time was coming when his State could make even better use of such a man as Rutledge. Elected President and Commander-in-Chief of the forces in South Carolina he wrote the famous note to Col. Moultrie in command of Sullivan's Island: "General Lee wishes you to evacuate the fort. You will not, without an order from me. I would sooner cut off my hand than write one." He was elected Governor under the new Constitution in 1778, sent to Congress in 1782, and declined the position of Minister Plenipotentiary to Holland in 1783. Under the Federal Constitution Rutledge was made, in 1789, a Justice of the United States Supreme Court. He resigned to become Chief Justice of South Carolina, and was afterwards appointed Chief Justice of the United States. He died in 1800.

PIERCE BUTLER.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

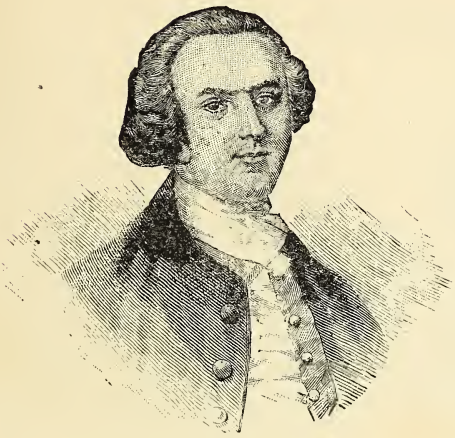


PIERCE BUTLER.

Pierce Butler, of South Carolina, a younger son of Sir Richard Butler, Bart., and Member of Parliament for Carlow, Ireland, was born in Ireland, in 1744. When only eleven years of age he received his commission as lieutenant in His Majesty's regiment, the 22d Foot. This was a common enough custom at the time, and was a favorite way of providing for younger sons. Although it probably affected the educational advantages of the child thus favored, there is no reason to believe that a military career was alien to Pierce Butler's early ambition, for in 1760, at the age of sixteen years, he began to discharge the functions of his lieutenancy, and one year later became a captain. In 1762 he exchanged into the 29th Foot, with the rank of major. Stationed for several years in America, he married a daughter of Col. Middleton, and, having contracted a fondness for the climate of South Carolina, he sold his commission and settled there in 1773. He took an active part in the politics of the colony after the Revolution and was elected to Congress in 1787, as well as to the Constitutional Convention. In the deliberations of the latter body he was a warm advocate of the Virginia plan. He was also impressed with the idea that representation should be based upon wealth rather than upon numbers. He was elected to the United States Senate in 1789 and held that position until 1796, when he resigned. He accepted a re-election in 1802, but again resigned two years later. In the Senate he was an active opponent of the Washington administration, and was one of the first to raise the standard of the Jeffersonian party in opposition to Federalism. He was one of the Democrats who voted for the Jay treaty. Pierce Butler died in 1822.

DANIEL CARROLL.

MARYLAND.

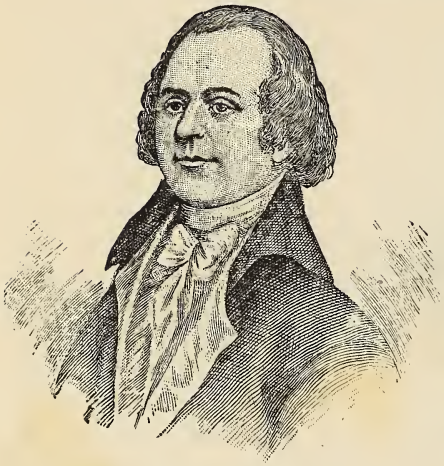


DANIEL CARROLL.

DANIEL CARROLL, of Maryland, was born in 1756, and his family owned the "Duddington" Estate, comprised within the present limits of the city of Washington. His education was a classical one, and at the close of his studies he retired to his farm, devoting his efforts to the improvement of customary methods of agriculture. It is not known that he took any part in public life until his election to the Continental Congress from Maryland in 1780. He appears to have been little stirred up by the earlier events of the Revolution. The Declaration of Independence and the rallying of all Americans to resist measures taken by King George's forces, to bring the country into submission, seem to have little affected the life of this Maryland farmer, upon and around whose homestead was to be built up the Capital City of the New World. It is hard to believe that, had he been gifted with prophetic vision, he would so coldly have surveyed the movements of his fellow patriots all over the colonies, for his future life leaves no reason to doubt the genuineness of Daniel Carroll's patriotism. He served in Congress until 1784, and it became his duty to submit to that body the resolutions of the State of Maryland's Legislature, assenting to the Articles of Confederation. He thus became one of the signers of that document. Elected a member of the Constitutional Convention he is not known to have taken any active part in the origination of the scheme of government evolved from its sessions. But after that scheme had been determined upon he was one of the most ardent supporters of the Constitution, and, together with McHenry, labored with all his power to bring about its adoption by his native State. He served in Congress from 1789 to 1791, and then was one of the commissioners to fix the site of the Federal Capital City. He died in 1829.

JAMES McHENRY.

MARYLAND.

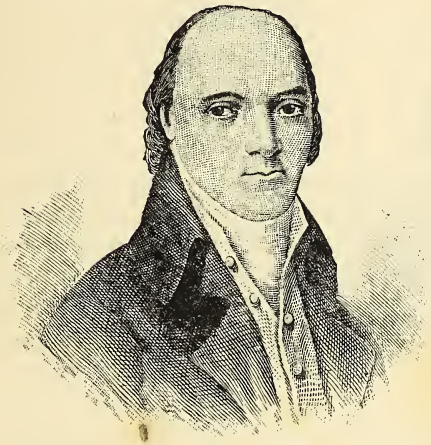


JAMES McHENRY.

James McHenry, of Maryland, was born in 1753. He was a native of Ireland, and did not come to America until 1771. He then took up the course of study at the Newark Academy of Delaware, then one of the best schools in the colonies. He then studied medicine under Dr. Benjamin Rush, of Philadelphia, and in the office of the latter he first met Gen. Washington. The closest personal friendship at once sprang up between the young Irishman and the distinguished Virginian. The former followed his chief to the camp at Cambridge, and in 1776 joined the army as assistant surgeon. He then became a. hospital director, and was afterwards commissioned as Surgeon of the Fifth Pennsylvania Battalion. On May 15, 1778, McHenry was appointed Secretary to the Commander-in-chief, and from that time he became the confidential friend of Washington. In 1780 he was transferred to the staff of Lafayette, and one year later was elected to the Senate of Maryland. In 1783 he was sent as a delegate to Congress, and until 1786 held the dual position of State Senator and Congressman. McHenry was one of the most regular attendants on the sessions of the Constitutional Convention, but he took little part in the debate there. After the document had been presented to the States, however, he made the most earnest and most successful efforts to have it adopted by Maryland, and carried the day in spite of some of the most effective politicians who were arrayed on the other side. He was a member of the Legislature of Maryland until 1796, when Washington appointed him Secretary of War. Under Washington and Adams he remained in the Cabinet until 1800. After his resignation he held no public office. He died in 1816.

JOHN BLAIR.

VIRGINIA.

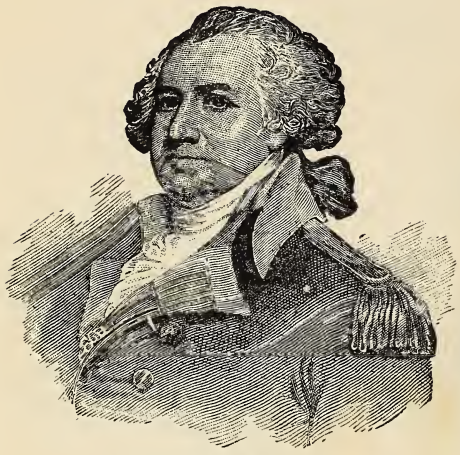


JOHN BLAIR.

JOHN BLAIR, of Virginia, was born at Williamsburg, in 1732. His ardent patriotism as well as his sound sense entitle him to rank with Washington and Madison among the statesmen of that day, and there is a singular propriety in the appearance of his signature beside theirs on the document which forever cemented the liberties of Americans. Blair was a graduate of William and Mary's College, and had studied law at the Temple, in London. He had taken part with Washington in drafting the non-importation agreement into its first practical form, in which resistance to the Stamp Act crystallized itself in the colonies. For a long term of years he was a member of the House of Burgesses, and was the last to represent the College of William and Mary in the councils of the Commonwealth. He was a member of that Committee which reported the State Constitution and the Bill of Rights. In 1777 Blair was made a Judge of the General Court, of which he afterwards became Chief Justice; in 1780 he was chosen a Judge of the High Court of Chancery, and still later a Justice of the High Court of Appeals. In the Constitutional Convention, he was a steadfast friend of the Virginia plan, and favored giving even more power to the general government than was finally awarded to it. He accepted the Constitution as the best that could be secured, and in the State Convention of Virginia warmly favored its ratification. He had the universal respect of the citizens of his own State, and appears to have represented the best type of the Virginia gentleman, than whom there was none more courtly in the world. He was a Justice of the United States Supreme Court from 1789 to 1796, and died in 1800 at his home in Williamsburg.

THOMAS MIFFLIN,

PENNSYLVANIA.

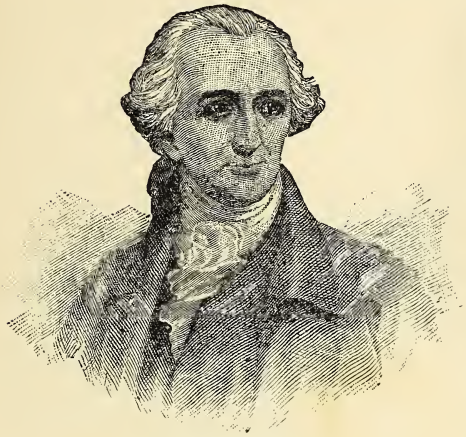


THOMAS MIFFLIN.

THOMAS MIFFLIN, of Pennsylvania, was born in 1744, at Philadelphia. He was the son of a Quaker, who intended him for a mercantile career, but on the outbreak of the Revolution he insisted on taking up arms, and became one of the best-known men in the army as well as one of the bravest. At that time he had already achieved a considerable personal popularity in the politics of his native State. He was not at all in sympathy with the methods of Washington, and entered the combination to supplant the Virginia statesman and soldier in favor of General Gates. The failure of this scheme brought those who had been concerned in it into something like general disrepute. But the hold which Mifflin had gained on the hearts of Pennsylvanians was not to be affected in that way, and, in 1783, after the end of the war, he was elected to Congress. Elected to the presidency of that body it became his rather embarrassing duty to receive back, on behalf of the Confederation, the commission of Washington on the resignation of the latter as Commander-in-Chief. He took this occasion to show that he had been moved by no petty sentiment in the past, and replied to the few words of the Commander as follows: "We join you in commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, beseeching Him to dispose the hearts and minds of its citizens to improve the opportunity afforded them of becoming a happy and respectable nation. And for you we address to Him our earnest prayers that a life so beloved may be fostered with all his care, that your days may be as happy as they have been illustrious, and that He will finally give you that reward which this world cannot give." After holding the office of Governor for nine years, Mifflin died in 1800.

GEORGE REED.

DELAWARE.

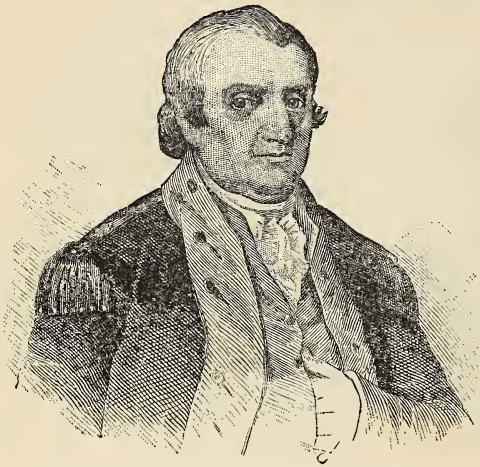


GEORGE REED.

George Reed, of Delaware, was a native of Maryland, and was born In 1734. His family was one of considerable wealth in Dublin, and had emigrated from Ireland to settle in that State. They soon removed to Newcastle, Del. The son first went to school at Chester, Pa.. and then was sent to to the institution managed by Rev. Dr. Allison, at New London, Conn. He began to study law at the age of seventeen years, and two years afterward was admitted to the bar. It appears that Reed was not a great speaker, and that he recognized, himself, the inexpediency of appearing in court to plead before a jury. In fact, he had none of that magnetism which captivates jurors as it captivates an audience. He was a slow and almost painful speaker. But then, as now, there were other elements besides eloquence which contributed to a lawyer's success. In the logic of the law, Mr. Reed was thoroughly well versed, and in the management of cases he had few equals. As a result, he won more legal battles than most of the greater speakers, and was never short of clients. In 1763 he became Attorney General for the lower counties of his State. He held that position for twelve years, but in 1775, having been chosen a member of the Continental Congress, he decided to resign the Attorney Generalship. When asked the reason of this course, he said he was too sincere a patriot to hold a position as a representative of his colony in Congress, hampered by the knowledge that he held another place under the British crown. He was foremost among the opponents of the Stamp Act, and did his full duty in resistance to Great Britain all through the Revolution. He was not an active participant in the Convention debates. He died in 1798, having held the positions of Governor, United States Senator, and Judge of the State Supreme Court.

CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

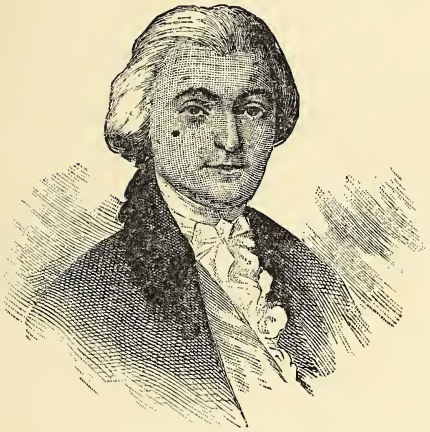


CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY.

Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, of South Carolina, was born in 1746. He was a son of an English family, which had settled in South Carolina in 1692. Sent to England at the age of seven years to receive an education, he did not return to America until 1769, when he was twenty-five years of age. In the meantime he had enjoyed five years of private tuition, had gone through Oxford, where he listened to a course of law lectures by Blackstone, and had studied law at the Temple. He had also made a brief tour of the continent, and for nine months had studied at the Royal Military Academy at Caen in Normandy. He came back, therefore, admirably equipped for those duties which the next decade was sure to develop upon the shoulders of a patriot American. He entered at once upon the practice of law, but on the outbreak of the Revolution entered the army, and soon won the rank of Brigadier-General. He was captured at the fall of Charleston, and suffered from the inhuman cruelty of the British to their American prisoners. At the end of the war he resumed the practice of his profession. The provision in the Constitution that "No religious test shall ever be required as a qualification for any office of public trust under the authority of the United States," was proposed by him. He declined a United States Supreme Court Judgeship, the Secretaryship of War and the Secretaryship of State under Washington. Having occupied the mission to France and driven from Paris by the Directory, he gave utterance to what has become a household expression among Americans, "Millions for defence, but not a cent for tribute," in answer to an insinuation that a payment of money might avert war with France. He was defeated as the Federalist candidate for Vice-President in 1800. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney died in 1825 at Charleston.

WILLIAM BLOUNT.

NORTH CAROLINA.



WILLIAM BLOUNT.

Wm. Blount, of North Carolina, was born in 1744 and was a native of that State. He had more of the distinctive pioneer spirit than any other of the signers, and his name is inseparably connected with the development of Tennessee into a State. Blount was a member of the Provincial Assembly of 1775 and 1776. From 1780 to 1784 he served in that body, which was known as the House of Commons in North Carolina. His action in signing the Constitution was calculated to arouse against him a very strong sentiment in his State, which was much dissatisfied with the document as drawn up by the convention. In fact, it was late in 1789 before North Carolina could be prevailed upon to ratify the Constitution, and she was the last of the States to do so except Rhode Island. Blount was therefore defeated in his ambition to be one of the first United States Senators from his State, but in 1790 was appointed by Washington as Governor of the new Territory south of the Ohio River. He settled at once in Tennessee, and was the founder of the City of Knoxville. Blount was presiding officer over the convention which formed the first Constitution of Tennessee. After the admission of that State to the Union in 1796 he was elected United States Senator. Before that body he was charged with having instigated the Creek and Cherokee Indians to help the English, in conquering the Spanish country south of his Territory. Found guilty and expelled, he went back to Knoxville, the speaker of the State Senate resigned, and Blount was at once chosen to fill the place. It appears, therefore, that he had, at least, the sympathy and support of Tennessee people. He died at Knoxville in 1800.

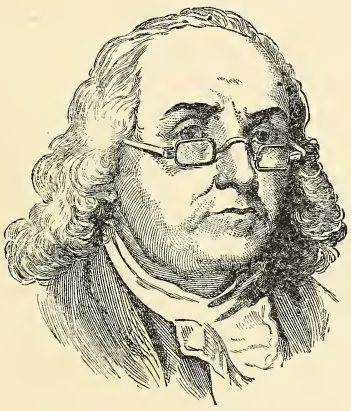
CHAPTER XI.

SIGNERS OF THE CONSTITUTION.—*Continued.*

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Benjamin Franklin, of Pennsylvania, was born in 1706, in Boston. He was eighty-one years of age at the time of the Convention, and was the oldest of the delegates there. In some respects he is the most remarkable man of whom we have any record in history. As a philosopher, statesman, inventor, diplomat, and general thinker, he was head and shoulders above every man of his time. As a mere boy he had come to Philadelphia without a dollar in his pocket and had worked out for himself his own fortune



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

In the field of invention alone, Edison is the only man who can be fairly compared with Franklin; and it is impossible to say now, how many of the machines to which modern life owes its comparative comfort, are based upon principles of Franklin's discovery. Of course there was no patent-office in his day to record his work or to reward it as such work is rewarded now. And largely for this reason the inventive genius of America's myriad-minded philosopher has been more than half overlooked even by his admirers. He has gone down

to posterity as a level-headed thinker however, and enough is known of his work at home and abroad, in behalf of American liberty to form a partial estimate of how invaluable it was to the cause which he espoused. His own business success had been remarkable, and had attested the value of the "Poor Richard" maxims, even before the latter became the common household property of all Americans. Edinburgh and Oxford Universities were not slow to recognize the value of his scientific researches. They both awarded him degrees. Franklin had lived in England from 1757 to 1762 as agent of the Pennsylvania Assembly in the latter's trouble with the Proprietaries. From 1764 to 1775 he was the agent in England, not only of the colony of Pennsylvania, but of New Jersey, Massachusetts and Georgia. At the outbreak of the Revolution it was evident to everyone that Franklin could be of immensely greater service to the Colonial cause in Paris than in Philadelphia; that his diplomacy would do far more to hold up the hands of Washington than any one man could do in the council at home or in the field. He therefore went to the French Court, and to his efforts America owes the alliance which made her independence possible. He stayed in Paris until 1785, although in 1783 he acted as one of the American Commissioners in signing the definite treaty of peace with Great Britain. Franklin had been home only two years when he was elected a delegate to the Constitutional Convention. The position was one peculiarly congenial to the great philosopher. For many years he had longed to see established a more perfect union, which should place beyond question the permanence of that liberty which had been achieved with so much difficulty. Long before the signing of the Declaration of Independence he had projected a plan for such union. After the Convention met he devoted his whole time to the formulation of such suggestions as in his opinion could be accepted and would not develop structural weakness in the new government. He knew that his ideals could not be fully realized, and with that intensely practical spirit which ever tempered his philosophy, Franklin preferred securing the best that could be secured, to losing something still better. The Constitution as drawn up was not in all respects to his liking. It had flaws which he could see, and which have been brought out already in the operation of the governmental scheme. But after the document had been framed he saw that the future of the United States depended upon its acceptance by the several States, because no other form of Union would be practicable after this had been rejected. He therefore spoke in the following words of the duty devolving upon himself and

his fellow delegates : "The opinions I have had of its errors I sacrifice to the public good. Within these walls they were born, and here they shall die. I hope that for our own sakes, as part of the people and for the sake of posterity, we shall act heartily and unanimously in recommending this Constitution, approved by Congress and confirmed by the Convention, wherever our influence may extend, and turn our future thoughts and endeavors to the means of having it well administered." After the document had been signed, Franklin looked up toward the President's chair and called attention to the picture of a rising sun there portrayed. "Painters often have difficulty in distinguishing between a rising and a setting sun in their oil," said he. "Often and often, in the course of the session and the vicissitudes of my hopes and fears as to its issue, I have looked at that sun behind the President, without being able to tell whether it was rising or setting ; but, now at length, I have the happiness to know that it is a rising and not a setting sun." He never had any serious doubt that the sober sense of the American people would be adequate to the amendment of the Constitution, when time should have made its defects apparent.

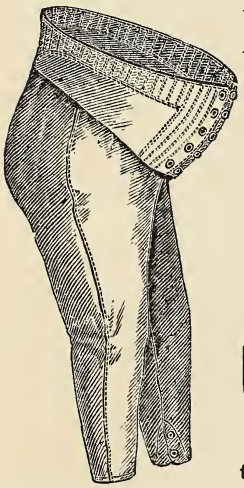
A brief story of the main features of Franklin's life is interesting. He was of a poor family in Boston, and when only twelve years of age was apprenticed to his step-brother, James Franklin, who was an employing printer. The boy showed his quickness at learning the trade, but did not get along well with his employer, and the wages paid him were very small. He decided to try his fortunes in Philadelphia, and when he reached there had only a shilling in his pocket. Employment was soon secured. He saved most of his earnings. Soon he was able to start a paper known as the "Gazette," and in 1732 he published the "Poor Richard Almanack," above alluded to. In the same year he founded the first company for the extinguishing of fires in Philadelphia, and in 1738 established the first fire insurance company in that city. His discovery of the identity of lightning and electricity by means of a kite, with which he brought the electric fluid down during the storm, is familiar to every schoolboy. This experiment took place in 1752, and soon afterwards Franklin published a pamphlet showing how the discovery could be utilized in lightning-rods for the protection of buildings. He worked hard for the adoption of the Declaration of Independence. The offensive and defensive treaty with France was entirely the result of his exertions, and in 1782 he had the pleasure of affixing his signature to the definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain. Later

on, he represented the Congress in London, and the following story illustrates the sturdiness of his Americanism. It was at a diplomatic dinner, and an Englishman proposed a toast to Great Britain: "The sun, whose rays warm and enlighten nations in every quarter of the globe." The French ambassador in his turn suggested: "France, the moon, whose rays shine with the sun's reflected glory." Both toasts were responded to. Then all eyes were upon Franklin. Each one present was saying to himself, "He has only the stars left, or he must break the metaphor." But Franklin choose neither alternative. Rising in all the dignity of a well-preserved old man, he said with great impressiveness:

"Let us drink now to America, the Joshua who commanded the sun and the moon to stand still, and they obeyed him."

No one could complain. All drank to the toast, and all acknowledged that the shrewd Yankee philosopher had outwitted the diplomatists. The banquet hall rang with applause. Franklin bowed his majestic hoary head and took his seat. He appreciated his own triumph.

Benjamin Franklin died in 1790, at Philadelphia.



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WM. LAWRENCE MEAD.

RUFUS KING.

MASSACHUSETTS.



RUFUS KING.

RUFUS KING, of Massachusetts, was born in 1755 at Scarborough, now in the State of Maine. His youth was surrounded by all the softening influences which wealth could afford, for his father was one of the richest merchants in the colonies at that time. He had a thorough education, and then studied law in the office of Theophilus Parsons, a leading member of the Massachusetts Bar. He served as an aide-de-camp of Gen. Glover during the Revolution, became a member of Congress after that, and distinguished himself in 1785 by attempting to pass a resolution forbidding the existence of slavery in any States formed from the Northwestern Territory, in one of the articles of the compact between the American commonwealths. This was referred to the Committee of the Whole, and afterwards embodied in the Nathan Kane ordinance of 1787. In 1788 Mr. King removed to New York, and was sent to the United States Senate from that State. He at once became one of the foremost members of that body. In 1796 he declined the Secretaryship of State, but accepted the position of Minister to England, which he held until 1804. Nine years after his return, Mr. King was again elected to the Senate, and was re-elected in 1819, and strenuously opposed the admission of Missouri as a slave State. He went to the Court of St. James as United States Minister, again, in 1825, but his health was not good, and he came back home to Jamaica, Long Island, where his death occurred on April 29, 1827.

DAVID BREARLEY.

NEW JERSEY.

David Brearley, of New Jersey, was born in 1745, and was therefore thirty-one years of age when the Declaration of Independence was signed. He had been a lawyer in excellent practice, and was a man of thorough education. His interest in the militia system of the colony had always been an active one, and it was with anything but reluctance that he took a command in the Revolutionary forces of his own State. He had also been a most enthusiastic patriot, a firm believer in the right of the colonies to autonomy in local government, as well as to independence from the mother country in case such autonomy was refused. He became a Lieutenant-Colonel in Maxwell's famous brigade of the Jersey Line, and in action repeatedly distinguished himself. He was known among his comrades as a thoroughly cool and reliable officer, as well as one of the bravest of the brave. In 1779 he resigned his commission to take the place of Chief Justice of New Jersey, which position he had been holding for eight years, when elected a delegate to the Constitutional Convention. His efforts were of great service in securing the ratification of the Constitution in New Jersey's State Convention. In 1788 Mr. Brearley was made a Presidential elector, and one year later he resigned his position as Chief Justice in order to become a Judge of the Federal District Court for New Jersey. In this position he proved his capacity to interpret intelligently that system of Federal law which the Constitution had rendered possible. He died in 1790.

THOMAS FITZSIMMONS.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Thomas Fitzsimmons, of Pennsylvania, was a native of Ireland, and was born in 1741. Like thousands upon thousands of Irishmen since his time he was driven to emigrate to this country by oppression in his native land. He settled in Philadelphia in 1765, and soon afterward was married to a daughter of Robert Meade, an ancestor of General Meade, of Gettysburg fame. Mr. Fitzsimmons went into partnership with a brother-in-law, and was doing a good business when the troubles began which ended in the Revolution. He was one of the first to espouse the cause of the colonies against the mother country, and did not hesitate to go into the army himself. He raised and equipped a company which went into the first campaigns under his own command. Afterward he was a member of the Council of Safety and of the Navy Board. The house of Meade & Fitzsimmons, in 1780, subscribed the enormous sum of £5,000 to the cause of the National defence. In 1872 Mr. Fitzsimmons became a member of the National Congress, and was one of the most influential debaters on all questions of finance. In the Constitutional Convention he was one of the warmest opponents of the theory of universal suffrage, and wanted to have the privilege of the ballot confined to freeholders. He also favored a tax on exports. Under the Constitution he was elected a member of Congress to represent the city of Philadelphia, and in the earlier debates in Congress he was among the first of American statesmen to advocate a protective tariff for the purpose of building up the manufacturing industries of the United States. In 1794 he was defeated for Congress, and, after holding important positions in several financial corporations, he died in 1811.

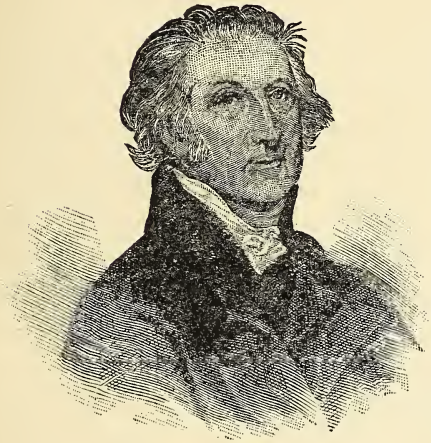
JACOB BROOM.

DELAWARE.

Jacob Broom, of Delaware, was born in 1752. He was a man of forceful individuality and of thorough training in public affairs. Representing a State which was naturally more or less jealous of the greater commonwealths like New York and Virginia, he had the tact to make himself a personal friend of the greatest statesmen in each of these Commonwealths. In this way he did as much as any one of his co-workers in Delaware to secure the ends which the State had in view. He had the respect of all who corresponded with him, and these comprised the leading men in each of the colonies. He held no public position outside of the two conventions which contributed to the establishment of a more perfect Union. At the Annapolis Convention, where nobody was sure of anything connected with the perpetuity of the Confederation in any form, Mr. Broom was one of the Commissioners of Delaware, and, together with Read, Dickinson, Bedford and Bassett, helped to make it clear that if their interests were not wantonly infringed upon, the smaller States would offer no factious opposition to any form of Union. This impression was emphasized by the position taken by the same men in the Constitutional Convention. Broom's address to Washington, delivered on December 17, 1783, was a most eloquent one. He had two sons—Jacob Broom, who was elected to Congress from Pennsylvania, and who became, in 1852, the "American Party's" candidate for the Presidency of the United States; and James M. Broom, who was a member of Congress from Delaware from 1805 to 1807, and afterwards became, like his brother, a member of the Philadelphia bar. Jacob Broom, Sr., himself, took up his residence in Philadelphia late in life, where he died in 1810.

GEORGE CLYMER.

PENNSYLVANIA.



GEORGE CLYMER.

George Clymer, of Pennsylvania, was born in 1739. His parents died when he was very young, and he became a ward of his uncle, Mr. Coleman, who was a man of high character, and who appears to have done all that he could for the orphan boy. The latter enjoyed a good common-school education, and, as a young man, entered a mercantile house in the Quaker City. He did his work well, and there is no doubt that he would have made his mark in the commercial world of the colonies but for the fact that his mind was early absorbed by the politics of the period, and that he chose to give to the service of his country those services which would have made him wealthy and prosperous if they had been devoted to business. George Clymer was a member of Congress in 1776, and, together with Wilson, Taylor, Ross and Rush, was among the first signers of the Declaration of Independence. He was in Congress until the latter part of 1777, but then failed of a re-election, and retired to private life untll 1780, when he was again elected to that body. Pennsylvania owes to Clymer a debt of gratitude because of his persistent and successful efforts to bring the penal code of that State into harmony with the humanitarian tendencies of civilization. In the Constitutional Convention he was one of the most valuable members, and his views were characterized by broad intelligence. No man did better work in securing the adoption of the Constitution by his State. Under the Constitution Clymer was elected a member of Congress. His death occurred in 1813.

CHAPTER XII.

SIGNERS OF THE CONSTITUTION.—*Continued.*

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

NEW YORK.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON, of New York, was born in the year 1757, in the Island of Nevis, and was therefore only thirty years of age at the time of the Convention's sessions. At the age of twelve years he entered a mercantile establishment at Santa Cruz, keeping up his studies in the meantime in order to fit himself for college. Three years later he came to New York, and passed without difficulty the entrance examinations at King's College (now Columbia), where he



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

soon distinguished himself not only in the regular work of his classes but as a writer on subjects too formidable for most young men of his age. A series of political papers on the rights of the Colonies, coming from his pen when he was seventeen years old, and published anonymously, was attributed to several of the best known thinkers on the topic of National development. He early identified himself with the patriotic sentiments which were gaining prevalence rapidly in New York, and at the age of nineteen years left college to enter the Revolutionary army as a Captain of Artillery. One year afterwards he was appointed one of the aides-de-camp of Washington, with the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. In this appointment the commander of the

patriotic forces showed more signally, perhaps, than at any other time in his career, the wonderful faculty of selecting his subordinates which amounted at times to intuition.

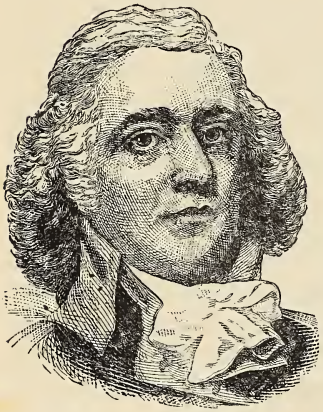
During five years' service in the field, for a considerable term of years in the Continental Congress, and throughout the dismal period of semi-anarchy which followed the recognition of our nationality by Great Britain, in the Constitutional Convention, and under the great chieftain in the first civic administration under the governmental scheme framed by that Convention, Alexander Hamilton always justified the confidence reposed in him by George Washington. As a soldier, a thinker, a statesman, and a financier, this young man proved himself the equal of the most mature intellects of his age. His work in the Convention was harder and more effective than that of any other member. He is said to have been capable of most intense and prolonged intellectual application, although his mind was not that of a plodder, and his perceptions were as rapid and acute as his generalizations were accurate and comprehensive. Hamilton's abhorrence of disorder led him, perhaps, to the other extreme in his theories of government. Left to himself, he would have established a constitutional monarchy with a Senate composed of life members, and a House of Representatives elected once in six years. On all these points he was overruled. President and Senators were given fixed terms, and the term of Congressmen was reduced to two years. But Hamilton's crowning glory is the fact, that to his genius the United States owes the system of unique checks and balances which put it out of the power of bad men in any one branch of the government to do any fatal injury to the political integrity of the whole. His distinctive theories on the question of centralization were the basis upon which the great Federalist party was built up; and the germs of centralization which he succeeded in planting in the Constitution itself, grew up in such a way as to offer needed support to the government at Washington at a time when it was in danger of falling under blows which even the prophetic genius of Hamilton himself could not have foreseen. It is true, too, that the tendency of governmental development in a direction which Hamilton would have favored, has been a more or less persistent one ever since 1789. With the question whether the tendency is or is not a wholesome one, it is not the purpose of this sketch to deal. That a man thirty years of age should have had the adroitness to force his compeers to half unwillingly adopt his own views, in the face of the strongest prejudices against them, nurtured as those prejudices had been by ten years of

clashing and bitterness between one State and another is indubitable proof of paramount genius. In his papers in "The Federalist" there can be no doubt that Hamilton did even more than Madison and Jay to secure the adoption of the Constitution. These papers will ever live as masterpieces of political reasoning as well as evidences of the cleverest practical statesmanship. There is none of the effervescence of youth about them. Every sentence is written with a purpose to placate some form of opposition, or to stir up on some new ground the sentiment in favor of Nationalism. No petty personal pride led him to carp at the work of a convention which had thrown aside so many of his pet ideas. He writes as a true patroit, and because of his apparent self-abnegation his words have all the more weight. They turned the balance in his own State, and without New York the Constitution would have been abortive. In the State Convention called to act upon that document, it was Hamilton who stood for its adoption against his fellow delegates, Yates and Lansing, who had refused to sign. His eloquence won the day. Success did not come at once, but it came ultimately. The Empire State was drawn into line. After Washington's inauguration Hamilton was asked to take the Treasury portfolio, and he accepted the charge. Like every other responsibility ever thrown upon him, this was manfully discharged. The assumption of the State debts, and the delicacy with which the subject of taxation by the new government had to be approached, rendered the task of the first Secretary of the Treasury anything but a sinecure. As a matter of fact, the real work of organizing the government fell upon Hamilton's shoulders. In 1795 he retired, and took up the practice of law in New York City, where he had an immense number of friends. He still retained the real leadership of the Federalist party, and his equally facile and forceful pen was of great value to that organization, which, nevertheless, could not withstand the odium brought upon it by the passage of the Alien and Sedition laws, and fell in 1800 under a reaction of public sentiment. Hamilton had been restored to the army as second in command, at the request of Washington, in 1798, in view of an expected French invasion, and had succeeded to command on the death of Washington, but soon resigned and returned to the New York Bar. He was not fond of a military life or of military pomp. Pre-eminently he was fitted to shine as an advocate. But it was an absolute impossibility for such a man to surrender his interest or to avoid participation in political events. In 1804 occurred the fatal duel with Aaron Burr. It is not unfair to the latter to say that the greatest statesman and the great-

est politician of that period were respectively the murdered and the murderer on that lamentable occasion. Hamilton was opposed to duelling on principle. He never hesitated to denounce the practice as a barbarous one; but at that time no public man could afford to decline a challenge. The trouble had arisen out of a political difference. Its ending robbed the country and the State of New York of one whose counsels were invaluable, and whose place no other man was capable of filling. Hamilton died, as he had lived, respected by mall en, regretted by all true patriots.

WILLIAM JACKSON.

SECRETARY.



WILLIAM JACKSON.

William Jackson, Secretary of the Constitutional Convention, was born in England in 1759. In his early youth he was sent to Charleston, South Carolina, and was educated there under the guardianship of Colonel Owen Roberts. In June, 1775, he was given a commission as Lieutenant in the First Regiment of South Carolina. In 1779 he was promoted to a captaincy, and then was made Aid-de-Camp to General Lincoln, which gave him the rank of major. Like several other well-known patriots, he was taken prisoner by the British at the fall of Charleston. He was exchanged in 1781, and was at once appointed secretary to John Laurens, who was just setting out on a mission to France to purchase supplies for the Revolutionary armies. He became Assistant Secretary of War under General Lincoln, on his return, but resigned that place in 1783 in order to travel in Europe on his private affairs. A year later he settled down to the practice of law in the city of Philadelphia, and was engaged in that way when the Constitutional Convention met. On the advice of Washington, he was elected secretary of that body, and the final success of its work is largely due to the fidelity of Jackson. On the inauguration of the first President of the United States, he became private secretary to Washington. He refused, in 1792, the position of Adjutant-General of the army, but in 1796 accepted that of Surveyor of the Port of Philadelphia, from which place Jefferson removed him in 1802. He seems to have been a man of rare qualities of heart and brain. No scrap of writing in his hand, with reference to the work of the Convention, is in existence, and he would never talk on that topic. He died in 1828.

History of the Amendments.

At the first session of Congress under the Constitution, begun in the city of New York, March 4th, 1789, many amendments to the Constitution were offered for consideration. Ten of these were proposed by Congress to the Legislatures of the several States. They were ratified by the requisite number by the middle of December, 1791. The XIth Amendment was proposed March 5th, 1794, and was ratified in 1798.

The XIIth amendment was proposed December 12th, 1803, and was ratified in 1804.

In May, 1810, an Amendment was proposed by Congress, prohibiting citizens of the United States from accepting or retaining any title of nobility or honor, present, pension or emolument from any person, king, or foreign power, without the consent of Congress, under the penalty of disfranchisement. It was never ratified.

The XIIIth Amendment was adopted by Congress January 31st, 1865, and was ratified December 18th, 1865.

The XIVth Amendment was adopted by Congress June 13th, 1866, and was ratified July 20th, 1868.

The XVth Amendment was adopted and proclaimed March 30th, 1870.

Order of Ratification of the Constitution by the States.

Delaware,	Dec. 7, 1787,	Unanimously.
Pennsylvania,	Dec. 12, "	46 to 23.
New Jersey,	Dec. 18, "	Unanimously.
Georgia,	Jan. 2, 1788,	Unanimously.
Connecticut,	" 9, "	128 to 40.
Massachusetts,	Feb. 6, "	187 to 168.
Maryland,	Apr. 28, "	63 to 12.
South Carolina,	May 23, "	149 to 73.
New Hampshire,	June 21, "	57 to 46.
Virginia,	June 26, "	89 to 79.
New York,	July 26, "	30 to 28.
North Carolina,	Nov. 21, 1789.	
Rhode Island,	May 29, 1790.	

ORDER OF ADMISSION OF STATES.

Vermont,	1791.	Missouri,	1821.	Kansas,	1861.
Kentucky,	1792.	Arkansas,	1836.	West Virginia,	1863.
Tennessee,	1796.	Michigan,	1837.	Nebraska,	1864.
Ohio,	1802.	Florida,	1845.	Nevada,	1864.
Louisiana,	1812.	Texas,	1845.	Colorado,	1876.
Indiana,	1816.	Iowa,	1846.	Montana,	1889.
Misissippi,	1817.	Wisconsin,	1848.	North Dakota,	1889.
Illinois,	1818.	California,	1850.	South Dakota,	1889.
Alabama,	1819.	Minnesota,	1858.	Washington,	1889.
Maine,	1820.	Oregon,	1859.		

TERRITORIES.

Arizona.	Indian Territory.	Utah.	Idaho.
New Mexico.	Wyoming.	District of Columbia.	District of Alaska.

CHAPTER XIII.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, ensure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America:

ARTICLE I.

Section 1.

1. All legislative powers, herein granted, shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section 2.

1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers; which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence

Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3.

1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided, as equally as may be, into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The vice-president of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the vice president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment, in cases of impeachment, shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4.

1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year; and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall, by law, appoint a different day.

SECTION 5.

1. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide.

2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and, from time to time, publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house, on any question, shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither house, during the session of Congress. shall, without the consent of the other adjourn for more than three days nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6.

1. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7.

1. All bills, for raising revenue, shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose, or concur with, amendments as on other bills.

2. Every bill, which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections, at large, on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered; and if approved by two-thirds of that house it shall become a law. But in all cases, the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and, before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him; or being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8.

The Congress shall have power:

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises; to pay the debts, and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States.

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes.

4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalization; and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States.

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin ; and fix the standard of weights and measures.

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States.

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads.

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court.

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations.

11. To declare war ; grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water.

12. To raise and support armies ; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

13. To provide and maintain a navy.

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions.

16. To provide for organizing, arming and discipling the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States ; reserving to the States, respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according to the discipline prescribed by Congress.

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States ; and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State, in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards and other needful buildings ; and

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers ; and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Section 9.

1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and

eight; but a tax duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when, in case of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION 10.

1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts, or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

Section 1.

1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and together with the vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows :

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States shall be appointed an elector.

3. [The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each ; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed ; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose, by ballot, one of them for President ; and if no person have a majority then from the five highest on the list, the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote ; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a maiority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them, by ballot, the Vice-President.]

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person, except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the

United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President ; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President; and the Congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the Presideni and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected; and he shall not receive, within that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2.

1. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion in writing of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power by and with the advice and consent of the Senate to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur ; and he shall nominate and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they

think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law or in the heads of departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3.

He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient. He may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses or either of them ; and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper ; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers ; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed ; and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4.

The President, Vice-President and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for and conviction of treason, bribery or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION 1.

The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish.

The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior; and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2.

1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made under their authority ; to all cases affecting ambassadors, or other public ministers, and consuls ; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of diffirent States; between citizens of the same State, claiming lands under grants of different States; and be-

tween a State the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, or public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trials shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3.

1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION 1.

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2.

1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged, in any State, with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up, on claim of the party, to whom such service or labor may be due.

CHAPTER XIV.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA —*Continued.*

Section 3.

1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union, but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State, nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section 4.

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union, a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion ; and, on application of the Legislature, or of the executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution ; or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress ; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall in any manner, affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article ; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into before the adoption of this Constitution shall be as valid against the United States, under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution and the laws of the United States, which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers both of the United States and the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the convention of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

No soldier shall in time of peace be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated ; and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself; nor be deprived of life, liberty or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law; and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII.

In suits at common law where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved; and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.

The enumeration, in the Constitution, of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States, respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

'ARTICLE XII.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote, by ballot, for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves ; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President ; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate ; the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted ; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed ; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose, immediately by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote ; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next

following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole nnmber shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

§ 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

§ 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

§ 3. No person shall be Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State. who having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

§ 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

§ 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote, shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

§ 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

IN CONVENTION, MONDAY, September 17, 1787.

PRESENT

The States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Mr. Hamilton from New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia.

Resolved, That the preceding Constitution be laid before the United States in Congress assembled, and that it is the opinion of this Convention, that it should afterwards be submitted to a Convention of Delegates, chosen in each State by the people thereof, under the recommendation of its Legislature for their assent and ratification; and that each Convention assenting to, and ratifying the same, should give notice thereof to the United States in Congress assembled.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this Convention, that as soon as the Conventions of nine States shall have ratified this Constitution, the United States in Congress assembled should fix a day on which electors should be appointed by the States, which shall have ratified the same, and a day on which the electors should assemble to vote for the President, and the time and place for commencing proceedings under the Constitution. That after such publication the electors should be appointed, and the Senators and Representatives elected; that the electors should meet on the day fixed for the election of the President, and should transmit their votes certified, signed, sealed and directed, as the Constitution requires, to the Secretary of the United States in Congress assembled; that the Senators and Representatives should convene at the time and place assigned; that the Senators should appoint a President of the Senate, for the sole purpose of receiving, opening and counting the votes for President; and that after he shall be chosen, the Congress, together with the President, should, without delay, proceed to execute the Constitution.

By the unanimous order of the Convention,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, President.

WILLIAM JACKSON, Secretary.

IN CONVENTION, September 17, 1787.

Sir:—We have now the honor to submit to the consideration of the United States in Congress assembled, that Constitution which has appeared to us the most advisable.

The friends of our country have long seen and desired that the power of making war, peace and treaties, that of levying money and regulating commerce, and the correspondent executive and judicial authorities should be fully and effectually vested in the general gov-

ernment of the Union ; but the impropriety of delegating such extensive trusts to one body of men is evident—hence resuits the necessity of a different organization.

It is obviously impracticable in the Federal government of these States to secure all rights of independent severeignty to each, and yet provide for the interest and safety of all. Individuals entering into society must give up a share of liberty to preserve the rest. The magnitude of the sacrifice must depend as well on situation and circumstance as on the object to be obtained. It is at all times difficult to draw with precision the line between those rights which must be surrendered, and those which may be reserved ; and on the present occasion this difficulty was increased by a difference among the several States as to their situation, extent, habits, and particular interests.

In all our deliberations on this subject, we kept steadily in our view that which appears to us the greatest interest to every true American, the consolidation of our Union, in which is involved our prosperity, safety, perhaps our national existence. This important consideration, seriously and deeply impressed on our minds, led each State in the Convention to be less rigid on points of inferior magnitude, than might have been otherwise expected, and thus the Constitution, which we now present, is the result of a spirit of amity, and of that mutual deference and concession which the peculiarity of our political situation rendered indispensable.

That it will meet the full and entire approbation of every State is not perhaps to be expected ; but each will doubtless consider, that had her interests been alone consulted, the consequences might have been particularly disagreeable or injurious to others ; that it is liable to as few exceptions as could reasonably have been expected, we hope and believe ; that it may promote the lasting welfare of that country so dear to us all, and secure her freedom and happiness, is our most ardent wish.

With great respect, we have the honor to be, sir, your excellency's most obedient and humble servants,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, President,

By unanimous order of the Convention.

HIS EXCELLENCY, THE PRESIDENT OF CONGRESS

CONSTITUTIONAL

CENTENNIAL JUBILEE

Was celebrated on SEPTEMBER 17, 1887,

IN INDEPENDENCE SQUARE, AT PHILADELPHIA

The Exercises were as follows:

OPENING CHORUS,
Two Thousand Children from the Public Schools.

DIVINE INVOCATION, Rt. Rev. Bishop Potter, of New York.

HYMN, ... Chorus of Boys.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS, . . Hon. John A. Kasson,
President of the Constitutional Centennial Commission.

SONG, "Appeal to Truth," . . [Schiller—Mendelssohn.]
Chorus of Two Hundred Men.

ADDRESS ON TAKING THE CHAIR.
The President of the United States.

PATRIOTIC SONG, ... Boys' Chorus.

MEMORIAL ORATION,

JUSTICE MILLER,
Senior Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

SONG, "Hail Columbia," . . Chorus of Two Hundred Voices.
With new words contributed by Oliver Wendell Holmes.

Recitation of a NEW NATIONAL HYMN, *Contributed by F. Marion Crawford.*
Professor Murdoch, with Chorus of Men's Voices.

PRAYER, . . Cardinal Archbishop Gibbons, of Maryland.

SONG, "Star-Spangled Banner," Men's Chorus.

BENEDICTION, ...

MARCH, ... U. S. Marine Band.

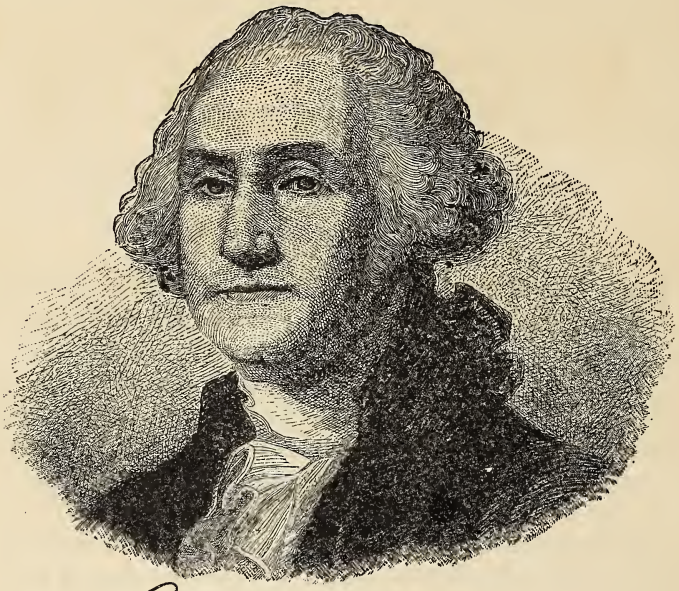
CHAPTER XV.

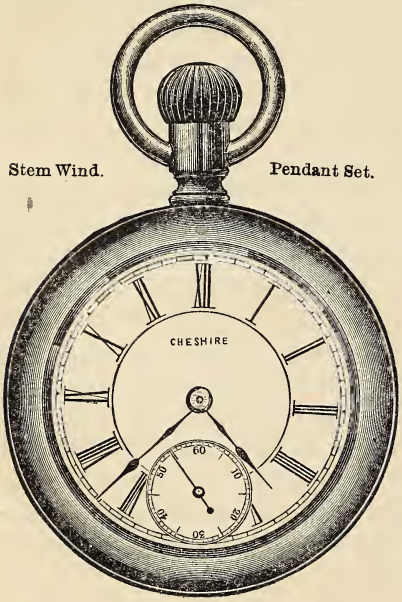
GEORGE WASHINGTON, 1789-1797.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, who was inaugurated as the first President of the United States, on April 30, 1789, was a native of Westmoreland County, Virginia, and was born February 22, 1732. He was the son of Augustine Washington and Mary Ball Washington, the latter's second wife, a daughter of Col. Ball, of Lancaster County, Virginia. His father was a rich planter, and at the age of twelve years George Washington found himself an orphan and heir to the paternal estates between the Rappahannock and the Potomac. Mount Vernon went first to Lawrence Washington, an elder son by a first marriage, and reverted to George through the death of Lawrence without heirs.

Although in his earlier school days Washington developed a taste for mathematics, there is no evidence that he ever felt himself drawn to the pursuit of a classical course of education. In fact, he broke off school while still very young, and at the age of 16 years was appointed surveyor for the extensive estates of Lord Fairfax, a position which must have been very congenial to the athletic young man, who revelled in open-air exercise, was an adept in all sports, and found pleasure even in the hardships of a frontier life. The experience gained here was of immense service, too, in after life. At the age of 19 years he first joined the Virginia militia, with the rank of major.

It appears that one year later Gov. Dinwiddie commissioned him as Adjutant-General and used him also in a semi-diplomatic capacity in dealing with the commander of the French forces which had taken possession of certain territory in the neighborhood of Lake Erie. His work during the French and Indian War was immensely valuable to the cause of Great Britain and of the Colonies. Familiar with every form of frontier warfare, the British found his advice always well worth heeding, and when a headstrong commander like Braddock rejected it, he did so at serious cost to himself and to the English cause. Washington, as practically Commander in Chief of the Virginia forces, urged Braddock to take such precautions as would have prevented the fatal culmination of the campaign of 1755, at Fort Du





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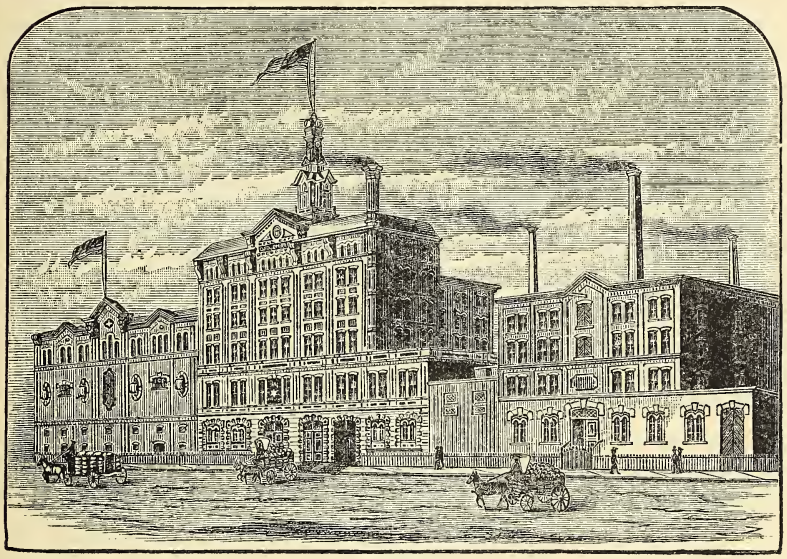
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NEW YORK.

Quesne (now Pittsburgh). When the defeat had became a rout, it was the military talent of Washington that gathered up the shattered remnants of the British and Colonial forces, and saved them from annihilation at the hands of murderous savages and complaisant Frenchmen.

Three years later, Washington married Martha Custis, a wealthy widow, resigned his commission, and was elected to the Legislature. From this time until the outbreak of the Revolution, his life was that of a plain Virginia farmer. In 1774 he was elected a delegate to the first Continental Congress. This position he resigned after the first blood had been shed in the battles of Lexington and Concord, to take the place of Commander in Chief of the Continental forces. It is hardly necessary, here, to go into a military history of the Revolution, and a complete story of the fidelity and fortitude with which Washington performed his duties would develope into such a history. He refused at the start to accept any salary, and his personal means were at the disposal of the country always. No purer patriot ever devoted himself to the establishment and maintenance of a nation's liberty. Our forefathers were not without their factional squabbles, and of many of these Washington was a victim. Calumny and intrigue love a shining mark; but those who doubted the wisdom of his policy at times and even conspired to overthrow him were readiest at a later period to acknowledge his worth, and even to half concede the value of his judgment when time had justified it.

Washington's resignation of his commission on Dec. 23, 1783, was thoroughly characteristic of him, although it has been always regarded by all foreign historians as an act of sublime self-abnegation. His hold upon the army and upon the people of the United States was invincible. Cromwell had more enemies in England when he became Protector. Napoleon was less revered in France when he assumed the First Consulate. But Washington's ambition was to be a citizen of a free and law-abiding nation. That was all. He rather favored the English model of a constitutional monarchy, and was not at all a red-republican. Never doubting for a moment the advisability of insisting on absolute independence for America, he based his belief in such independence not on the weak points of the British scheme as a Government for the British isles, but on the impracticability of governing the American Continent from Westminster.

Impressed with such an idea of the true nature of government, it is not to be wondered at, that Washington was deeply pained by the course of events in the States after the Revolution was ended.


GEORGIO WASHINGTON SVPREMO DVCI EXERCITVVM ASSERTORI LIBERTATIS
COMITIA AMERICANA

Every event which demonstrated the weakness of the Confederation was a fresh stab which pierced to the great heart of the magnanimous Virginian. Spasmodic outbreaks of actual violence in various States, refusals to honor the requisitions of Congress for money, independent and arbitrary action for the regulation of commerce by separate States, boundary disputes of doubtful settlement, and above all, the contempt into which our diplomacy was brought by our internal dissensions and by questions hotly debated even here as to the extent of Congressional prerogatives, all were abhorrent to Washington's nature, and all offered to him new proof of the necessity of a more perfect union of the States which should involve nationality. His position from 1783 to 1787 was an irksome one. Though in private life, he could not assume the liberty of a private citizen in working actively and conspicuously as a champion of the national idea, without giving calumniators an opportunity to insinuate that he regretted his own rejection of a crown that had been within his grasp. The inherent delicacy of the man made itself felt in this emergency. No statesman was ever more modest in offering his own ideas and none was ever more chary of combatting the ideas of others. He corresponded freely with Franklin and Hamilton and Madison, but throughout all his letters ran the one theme, "Nationality on any plan not open to the objections which have proven stumbling-blocks in the path of the Confederation." The Annapolis Convention in 1786 was largely the result of this systematic, unheralded, but effective work on the part of the Father of his Country. Over the Constitutional Convention one year later he presided in exactly the same spirit. Rarely did he press any suggestion upon the Convention. He was there to listen, to make fair rulings, to aid by his personal dignity and the reverence in which he was held. The result showed the wisdom of his course. When the Constitution had been drawn up, he was the first to sign it. His colleague, George Mason, refused to do so, on the ground that the liberties of the people were not sufficiently guaranteed, that slavery was recognized, and that the slave-trade was continued. Washington would not argue the point even with him. Mason, even on further thought, did not withdraw his objections, and opposed ratification in the Virginia Convention.

The unanimous election of Washington to the presidency of the new republic was a natural tribute to his unselfish patriotism. The honor came unsolicited. The office sought the man, and its cares and responsibilities were taken up under a prayerful sense of their weight and of the difficulty of discharging them. But in the presi-

dential office, as in every other position in which his varied career had placed him, George Washington did his duty. He called to his first Cabinet men who represented patriotism rather than party. Thomas Jefferson, then as ever the leader of the element all over the Union which believed in the localization of power, and therefore in a strict construction of the Federal Constitution, was made Secretary of State. Edmund Randolph, the distinguished Virginian jurist, who had refused to sign the Constitution, was his Attorney General. Alexander Hamilton, the father of the Federalists, became Secretary of the Treasury. There was no objection anywhere to the appointment of Gen. Knox as Secretary of War. But the changes in Washington's Cabinet during the eight years of his incumbency prove that even in his mind there was a growing perception of the fact that parties are essential to the permanence of liberty in a republic, and that a President does more for his country when he is the real head of his own party than he can do otherwise. When Washington left the presidency in 1797 he was the recognized leader of the Federal party which had just elected John Adams President.

There can be no doubt that the position which Washington occupies in history is a just one. As a military man, it may be fairly denied that he was a genius. His battles, by the side of those of Napoleon, are but skirmishes. His campaigns, compared with those of our own civil war, are not to be considered. His tactics are those of a farmer leading farmers. His strategy is of the Fabian order, that of the guerrilla chieftain rather than of the great general. But the American Colonies in their struggle for liberty did not need a Napoleon or a Wellington. Washington gave them what they did need—a leader who would make the most of the resources at his disposal; who knew that homespun was not a bad uniform to fight in, and that ragged shoes do not prevent brave men from winning victories; who never played the martinet in such a way as to offend the Colonial idea of individual dignity even in the private soldier; and whose personality at the same time lifted the Colonial cause out of odium which pertains to an emeute of malcontents, by identifying with it his own pride of property and his own family distinction. As a civilian, Washington will always hold pre-eminence over all his contemporaries. He deserves it: dignity, modesty, integrity, are traits which deserve more of a Nation's homage than brilliant oratory or the most resplendent of intellectual gifts. Even the genius of constructive statemanship is of less worth than that rock-bound integrity of personality which repulses the wild waves of anarchy

and disorder, and makes it possible for such genius to do its work.

When war with France seemed to be impending over the young nation in 1798, Washington once more consented to take the chief command of its army, but his days of fighting were ended. The war was averted, and on Dec. 14, 1799, George Washington breathed his last at Mount Vernon. His death was a national calamity mourned in every section of the country by thousands who had never seen him, as a personal bereavement. In every relation of life he had borne responsibility without shrinking and had come out of the most fiery trials unsinged. His name lives in that of our Federal city, it is perpetuated in the memories of his countrymen, and to them the record of his achievements is the proudest of legacies. In all history virtue has found no more satisfactory exponent than George Washington.

Under Washington's administration the Constitution was in its formative stage of existence. For the first time the language of the original document had to be construed for practical application. This, in itself, was a delicate task. But in addition to the duty of construction there was the necessity of amendment forced on the first Congress by the action of State conventions. As first drawn up, the document nad contained no comprehensive bill of rights, and the Philadelphia convention had regarded no such provision as essential to the preservation of American liberty. Several of the States insisted that it was essential, and there was no objection to the enactment of the first ten amendments into fundamental law. They were proposed by Congress in 1789, and in 1791 had received the ratification of a sufficient number of States. All of these amendments were drawn up for the purpose of preventing the Federal Government from infringing on the rights of the States or of the people. Freedom of religion, the right of petition, freedom of speech and of the press; the right to keep and bear arms, security against unreasonable searches and prosecutions, and trial by jury were thus forever protected against the interference or aasaults of any Congress or any administration. The quartering of soldiers upon citizens in time of peace and the imposition of excessive bail, excessive fines or cruel and unusual punishments, were also prohibited. Protection was given, too, against any forced construction of the Constitution to the disparagement of unenumerated rights of the States, or of the people. In all of their features, these amendments were restrictions upon the powers of the general Government, and do not in any way

restrain the States. Without exception, the Magna Charta provisions for trial by jury and freedom from unreasonable searches and prosecutions are included in the fundamental law of each of the States. Religious liberty is similarly protected. But most of the States restrict the right to bear arms; the amount at stake in a civil suit on which a jury trial may be demanded differs in different States; and freedom of speech and of the press is subjected to various limitations.

At the inception of the new Government only eleven of the States had ratified the Constitution. North Carolina and Rhode Island were out of the Union. The Articles of Confederation had forbidden any amendment of their provisions except by unanimous action on the part of all the States. The constitutional convention's course in making the ratifications of only nine States necessary to carry their scheme into effect had been revolutionary though justifiable. There was, therefore, no moral obligation resting on either Rhode Island or North Carolina to come into the new nation. The latter was out for nearly seven months and the former for over a year. It has been said by constitutional philosophers that these are the only two States that ever exercised the full powers of State sovereignity. But it has also been observed that even at this period neither of the States named ever exercised the functions essential to making a commonwealth a nation. Neither ever obtained or sought diplomatic recognition by the nations of the world. Neither ever attempted to levy war, to create a navy, or to assert its individuality in any way. Their entrance into the Union was not coerced in any manner, it is true, but it was certain to come. Nobody had any doubt about it. Coercion would have been absurd and could only have delayed the natural course of events.

Besides North Carolina and Rhode Island, Vermont (1791), Kentucky (1792), and Tennessee (1796), were admitted to the Union during the eight years of Washington's administration. Vermont had done good service to the cause of the Colonies in the course of the Revolution. The Green Mountain Boys under Ethan Allen were unexcelled in energy or in valor. But in the Continental Congress, under the Confederation, and up to the adoption of the Constitution, fellowship as one of the family of States had been denied to Vermont because her territory was a bone of contention between New York and New Hampshire. This contention having been happily settled, everybody was glad to have Vermont come in. Kentucky was the first State to be admitted west of the Alleghany Mountains. With the spirit of Daniel Boone, their great pioneer, her settlers were quick to

see and to seize upon the possibility of identification with a free nation. Tennessee came next. This ended the territorial aggrandizement of the Union under Washington.

Of the work really accomplished by the first President in endearing the Constitution to his fellow citizens by means of temperate action and judicious interpretation, it is hard to speak too highly. He was not too ready to assume even the powers vested in him by the text of that document. He avoided mooted questions. He never claimed the right to remove officers without the consent of the Senate. His use of the veto power was extremely limited. He held that it was an unusual prerogative, intended only for the purpose of checking hasty or unconstitutional legislation, and not meant to vest him with one-sixth of the legislative power. It is hardly necessary to remark, in conclusion, that Washington's administration did nothing during its whole existence that could be held to have infringed upon the letter or the spirit of the Constitution, or of the amendments thereto.

CHAPTER XVI.

JOHN ADAMS.

1797-1801.

JOHN ADAMS, the second President of the United States, and the first to be elected by a party, was a native of Braintree, Mass., and was born in 1735. He was a member of an English family which had come to America in 1630,—ten years after the landing of the Mayflower, and which had become thoroughly identified with the social and political life of the Bay State. Even prior to the Revolution, he had made a reputation as a jurist and as an advocate at the bar. In 1774 Adams was elected to the Continental Congress, and was one of the most steadfast friends of the policy of independence. In 1776 he was with Jefferson on the committee of two to draft a Declaration, and, though the latter actually drew up the document, both agreed on the report. Adams was appointed with Jay, Laurens, Jefferson and Franklin in 1782 to settle terms of peace with Great Britain. In 1783 he was appointed to represent America at the Court of St. James. On the establishment of the new Constitution he was elected Vice-President, and in 1796 was chosen President to succeed Washington. At the same time, Jefferson became Vice-President under the system of election which gave the Presidency to the candidate having the largest number of electoral votes, and the Vice-Presidency to the one having the next highest number, which was abolished by the twelfth amendment. At the end of his term Adams was beaten for re-election by eight votes. On leaving the Presidency he retired to his farm at Quincy, Massachusetts, and devoted himself to agriculture. His mental faculties remained in full vigor during his old age ; he took an active interest in all public affairs, and as late as 1820 was a member of a State convention. He died on July 4, 1826, just fifty years after the signing of the Declaration of Independence, and less than one year before his son took the oath of office as President of the United States. Adams represented New England more distinctively than any other man in public life. Of a family which had been foremost in the struggle for freedom, his patriotism was undoubted, and his honest energy of character commanded the respect of even his opponents.



John Adams

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His ideas on governmental theory and governmental policy were the same as those of Washington and of Hamilton. He was a Federalist, confident in his belief that serious deflection from the course which had led to substantial liberty in England was sure to end in disaster. His party was based on the idea that all power coming first from the whole people is vested in a sovereign or in a central government, and, as a corollary, that the powers of even States in the American sense, are derived by delegation from such central authority. Each colony had enjoyed such powers, as the gift of the British Crown and the British Parliament. The Federalists held that Crown and Parliament had been superseded by Congress, by Confederation, and by Federal Government successively. Recognizing, therefore, the rights of the States, they did not look upon those rights as paramount, and did not own that the States had given to the Federal system all or any of the prerogatives which it possessed under the Constitution. They were, therefore, predisposed to what was generally known as Centralization.

The Republican party, under the leadership of Mr. Jefferson, held on the other hand that the Constitution was a compact of States,—an indissoluble compact indeed, but one which derived all its authority from the several parties to the agreement, and consequently could have no inferential powers of sovereignty, having inherited nothing from previously existent central governments. This party was necessarily bound to a strict construction of the Constitution, and to favoring a tendency toward the localization of power.

These parties came to be known by their opponents respectively as the English and French parties. It has been necessary to outline the difference between them here, because, in so far as theory is concerned, it underlies all party divisions in America. But while the ideas of Adams and Washington, as formulated, were the same, the country found an immense difference between Virginia Federalism and Massachusetts Federalism in practical application. Puritanism loves antagonism. Blue laws and belligerency go hand in hand. Massachusetts' fondness for the church militant found collateral development in Adams' acrid espousal of the cause of centralization. Directly through the influence of the administration, two enactments were framed and passed by Congress, which have passed into history as the "alien" and "sedition" laws. The first gave the President power to exclude from the United States any alien whose presence here was, in his opinion, dangerous to American institutions. The second made the utterance of false, malicious, and bitter assaults upon the President or the administration, or their publication, a penal of-

fense, and also forbade "conspiracies to overthrow the existing administration." The public excitement stirred up by these laws was intense, and the public disapproval with which they were greeted put a sword of admirable temper into the hands of Jefferson.

Two States—Virginia and Kentucky—passed in their Legislatures resolutions regarding these laws, which went far beyond the subject matter of the laws themselves. Virginia's resolutions were drawn by Jefferson himself, and, for the time, asserted the doctrine of nullification. They insisted that improper or tyrannous laws passed by Congress might properly be guarded against by State laws of an opposite purport. Kentucky's resolutions were equally positive. And a similar spirit of resistance was aroused among the opponents of Adams all over the country, which has never been paralleled by the effect of any enactment in our history, except the fugitive slave law. At this period America was not unaffected by the course of military and political events in Europe. France had become a republic. The blood of noble men and noble women had been shed like water, it is true; and, in the minds of American Federalists, all sympathy for French republicanism was wiped out by revulsion at bloodshed. But Jefferson, a personal friend of Thomas Paine, and, above all, a lover of liberty in the abstract, represented the masses of Americans in his admiration of the patriotism of Frenchmen and the invincible energy of republican France, meeting on the battle-fields of Europe a combination of all the powers of despotism, and contending with them on equal terms.

President Adams was, therefore, at a disadvantage. There had been some reason for the alien and sedition laws. France and England alike had not yet given up the idea of making a dependency out of the new American nation. Press and rostrum alike were cultivating the habit of indulging unbridled bitterness. The expressions used in the newspapers and on the stump at that day would not be tolerated for a moment now. But it was a blunder to imagine that legislation could furnish a remedy for evils of this sort, and that blunder left the administration open to assault. Adams' friends could not deny that the aliens whom he wished to expel were French aliens. Still less could they defend the partisan character of the sedition law. The latter was assailed also as in almost direct violation of the first amendment to the Constitution; and to most writers on constitutional law it has seemed difficult, at least, to reconcile the two.

The embroilment with France, which occurred during the first two years of Adams' administration, had, therefore, a direct bearing on

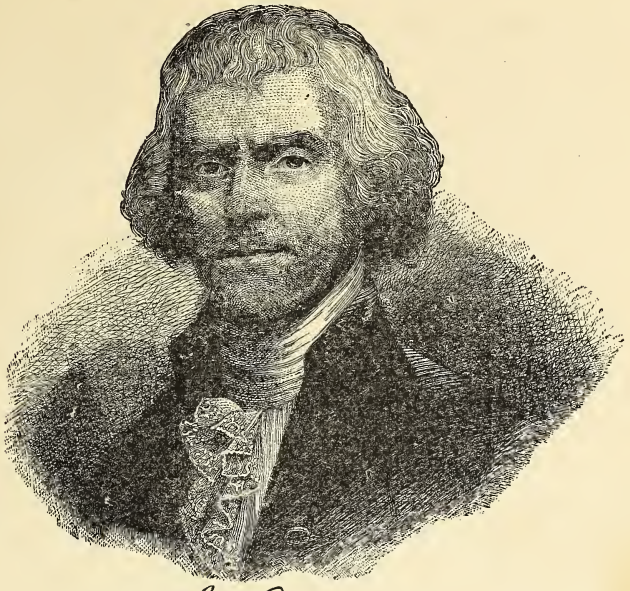
contemporaneous politics in America. Our trade with England was greater than with all other European powers put together. In time of war between England and France it was natural that France should be a greater aggressor than England against American commerce. The law of nations, in its bearing on the rights of neutrals' ships, was not then so well defined as at present. But the carrying trade of the United States was then a most valuable one, and any administration was obliged to do all that could be done for its protection against aggression on the part of either England or France. It is probably true that President Adams was perfectly conscientious in all his diplomatic intercourse with the French government. There seems to be no reason to believe that, to further the ends of the "English" party, he aimed at war with the French republic. Indeed, the treaty of peace, signed in 1800, precludes any such conclusion. But some of the earlier efforts of the administration to maintain "peace with honor" were unfortunate. Almost at the end of the administration of Washington, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, of South Carolina, had been sent as minister to France; and, on his arrival at Paris, had been refused recognition by the Directory. His attention had been pertinently called to the law which prohibited any foreigner from residing in France more than thirty days without permission. For such permission Pinckney most indignantly refused to apply, and at once retired to Amsterdam, where he waited for further action by his own government. President Adams sent out John Marshall and Elbridge Gerry to aid Minister Pinckney in settling the difficulty. They joined Pinckney in his retreat, and at once began communication with the government of France. But either because the choice of envoys had been unwise, or because the provoked indignation of Pinckney had left too much bitterness behind it, or because France was inclined, from mere motives of policy, to adhere to the course which would do most to weaken England, the ambassadors succeeded in doing nothing; and although President Adams did succeed at last in ending the French trouble, this failure, believed by his enemies to have been intentional, helped to rouse public feeling against him, and was one of the causes of Mr. Jefferson's success in 1800.

With Adams the Federalist party died. Its ideas survived, and appeared later under another name when his son became President of the United States. Their modification and evolution into the doctrines of the Whig and Republican parties will be treated later on.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.
1801-1809.

THOMAS JEFFERSON was born at Shadwell, Va., in 1743, and enjoyed the advantages of a thorough education at the Colonial institutions of his native State. His interest in politics began to display itself at a very early date, and at the age of thirty years in 1773 was elected to the State Legislature. His grasp of all questions relating to public policy was soon felt. He gained the respect of his colleagues, too, by his uniform courtesy and his command of the principles of constitutional law and parliamentary practice. This reputation led the people of Virginia to send him to the Continental Congress, and in 1776 he was chosen to draft the Declaration of Independence. That document was at once a firm statement of the American position, a full justification of the action of Congress in the eyes of the world, and a credit to American statesmanship. The man who had penned it was entitled to be held, and was held in the highest esteem by his countrymen. He returned home, and Virginia could not do him too much honor. Elected Governor of the State, he held that position through all the trying period of the Revolution, and under his lead the Old Dominion was always first in the field as in the council, ready with her valor or her advice or her treasury to advance the cause of the new nation which was being christened in blood and human suffering. It is impossible at this late day to do full justice to the service which Jefferson rendered at that time. The best commentary on its value is to be found in the relations which always existed between Washington and Jefferson in spite of their differing views on politics and constitutional development. Each had the respect and warm friendship of the other. In 1784 Mr. Jefferson went to Paris as the representative of the American Congress, and while there was treated with the greatest consideration by the French Court. In 1789 he was called to the Cabinet as Secretary of State. A candidate for the Presidency at the end of Washington's term, he was beaten by Adams, and as before noted, became Vice-President until 1800, when he was elected President.

The crowning act of Jefferson's administration was the purchase of Louisiana for $15,000,000 from France. He retired from office on March 4, 1809, and after living in retirement over seventeen years



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died on July 4, 1826, the very day of the decease of John Adams. This is one of the most curious coincidences in American history. On that day the whole country from Charleston to Boston was firing cannon, ringing bells, listening to patriotic speeches, and setting-off fireworks in honor of the semi-centennial of American Independence. The rival party leaders who had together formed the Declaration heard even upon their death-beds the exultant shouts of freemen. Democrats and Whigs on that day had forgotten their differences and temporarily fused their bitternesses in the general ardor of patriotism. A few days later, in every town and hamlet, each of the two parties was mourning the loss of a long-retired chieftain who had represented the earliest formulation of its own ideas.

Jefferson's character was always that of a disinterested patriot. A Virginian and a slaveholder, he never hesitated to express his regret that slavery existed, to advocate its exclusion from the great Northwest, and to press upon the State of Virginia the desirability of a gradual emancipation. A friend of France, he was as firm in resisting French encroachments upon the liberty of our commerce as in meeting such encroachments when they came from England. An advocate of the theory of strict construction, he never let even that theory stand in the way of anything that could advance American interests. The well-being of the whole country was first in his mind, the local interests of Virginia and Virginians second, and the personal interests of Thomas Jefferson last and least of all.

It was singularly fitting, that under the Presidency of such a man the first addition should have been made to the territorial extent of the United States. Alien control of the mouth of the Mississippi had created a great deal of rancor in the minds of those pioneers who had settled along the tributaries of that river. Their commerce was impeded by such control, and they had a right to expect that the general government would do something to protect it. No treaty could do this, and in case of war our settlers had before their minds all the terrible bloodshed which might result from the use by Frenchmen of an almost perpetually existent alliance between themselves and the aborigines. Uneasiness, under the circumstances, was natural, and Jefferson knew that attempts at repression could only raise such uneasiness to fever heat. He did not believe in repression. For every popular agitation he saw the only effective remedy in a removal of the causes which produced such agitation. He set about making negotiations for the purchase of the whole Louisiana territory, and in these negotiations he had one advantage which Adams would not

have enjoyed. Napoleon, who, in 1803, was in absolute control of the French Government, knew that in President Jefferson he was dealing with a friend of French Republicanism, and an enemy to the house of Bourbon as well as to all the despotic dynasties in league to force upon France a family which she had rejected. At that time, too, the French were drawing no income at all from Louisiana. On the other hand, its immense frontier was calculated to involve great expense for its defense. By selling it, they could cement friendship between France and America, and at the same time make the United States so great territorially as to preclude the possibility of its ever becoming again a dependency of Great Britain nominally or in fact. Napoleon, in agreeing to the sale, gave one of the crowning evidences of his statesmanship. Jefferson, in proposing it, had earned the everlasting gratitude of Americans.

By means of this purchase the United States obtained a tremendous territory extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific Ocean and comprising a range of climates and soils wonderfully varied, and which under the beneficent governmental conditions already established could not fail to appeal with an inviting summons to the poor and the oppressed millions of Europe, whose energy and brawn and muscle were to make this the richest country on the face of the globe. It was largely uninhabited except by natives. The creole population in New Orleans and the surrounding section of Louisiana proper (afterwards the State of Louisiana) was indeed a strange mixture of French and Spanish blood, but the blood was good. Honor and integrity were as much respected there, as in New England ; and if the people were not used to the local autonomy allowed by the system, they were well fitted to appreciate the value of such autonomy aud to accept it with a full sense of its responsibilities. In less than twenty years two new States had been created from this territory. Nine other States have since been admitted, and all but two of the territories now applying for admission were acquired in the same purchase.

Hamilton, who had controlled the financial administration of the government, directly or indirectly, during the twelve years preceding Jefferson's accession to power, had been a believer in the theory of import duties, not only as a means of raising a revenue, but as a method of fostering the manufacturing industries of this country. The tendency of those duties had been therefore to increase under Washington and Adams. Jefferson, while not absolutely against the policy of what was known, even at that day, as "protection,"

steadily applied himself to the reduction of duties. Even more positively, however, did he oppose the practice of imposing direct taxes. He sought to reduce in every possible way the burdens resting on the people.

Jefferson published no literary work except his "Notes on Virginia," which was brought out in 1782. His speeches and state papers, however, are marvels of clear and vigorous English, and his aphorisms constitute still the political bible of a large section of the American people in all parts of the country. His sentences are polished as well as keen, his logic is effective, and his writings leave little to be contested if his premises are granted. The latter were, of course, hotly contested by the Hamiltonians.

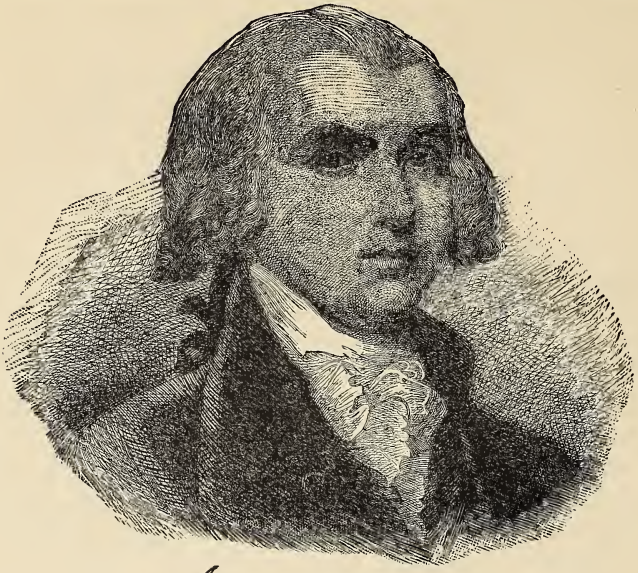
Ohio, a free State, was the only one admitted to the Union during the administration of Jefferson. It was even then a large and thriving commonwealth, giving fair promise of its future greatness. The country in 1809 was as a whole in far better condition than when Jefferson assumed the reins of government.

CHAPTER XVII.

JAMES MADISON.
1809-1817.

James Madison was born at King George, Virginia, in 1751. At a comparatively early age he became identified with public life in the colony and in 1776 was a delegate to a State convention, in which his sound sense and logical acuteness made him one of the most prominent members. In 1779 he was sent to Congress, and at once took a significant part in the National Council. In 1785 he again accepted an election to the Legislature, and in 1787 was a member of the convention which drew up the Federal Constitution. With Jay and Hamilton he was a contributor to the Federalist. Under the new administration Madison declined the mission to France and afterwards the Secretaryship of State. From 1792 up to the close of the presidential term of Adams he was a leading member of the House of Representatives. He wrote the "Kentucky Resolutions" above alluded to, asserting the right of a State to take measures to protect its citizens from laws improperly passed by Congress. Madison did all in his power to secure the election of Jefferson to the Presidency, and occupied at his hands the position of Secretary of State, which he had refused when offered by Washington. He was elected President himself in 1808 and served until March 4, 1817. During his term the war of 1812 was begun and ended with honor to the country. When his term was concluded, Madison retired to Montpelier, Virginia, and from that time until his death in 1836 took no part in public affairs.

The part played by the writers who contributed to the Federalist, in securing the adoption of the Constitution is conceded to have been a most important one. They had to contend against some of the keenest intellects of their age. Patrick Henry and George Mason, in Virginia; Elbridge Gerry, in Massachusetts; Martin, in Maryland; Clinton, Yates, and Lansing, in New York; were patriotic in purpose but were making use of petty colonial jealousies unworthy of free and independent States. Against such men, any *faux pas*, in temper or in logic, would have been fatal. Madison, no less than Jay and



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Hamilton, fully appreciated this fact. Three more cautious statesmen never helped to make a nation, but all of them knew how to be firm too, and in yielding non-essentials to secure what was most valuable to the new Government. It is not remarkable then that we find in the Federalist not only the fullest source of information that we have as to the intent of the framers of the Constitution, but also an idea of the proper judicial construction, which has been followed, though not without some deviations, by the courts. Madison, in the Kentucky resolutions, it is true, advanced a theory which has not been accepted, and might have been fatal to national life if it had been accepted by the Supreme Court; viz: that the States retain power to decide what laws of Congress are constitutional, and what are unconstitutional. But in general he held to the views expressed in the Federalist, and on that particular occasion there was much excuse for radicalism. That the alien and sedition laws were tyrannous as well as impolitic, is hardly doubted now, by anyone. An experiment which would not be tolerated at the present day produced even more excitement when tried so soon after the establishment of the new system, and it was to such excitement, as already stated, that the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions owed their birth.

It is a curious fact, too, that under Madison's own administration the New England States were first to take advantage of the fallacy involved in those Kentucky resolutions. The first act of hostility in the necessary war with Great Britain was to lay an embargo on British commerce in our ports, and on commerce with the dependencies of Great Britain. This bore with great weight on the carrying trade and the mercantile interests of New England, and produced a great deal of irritation. Out of such irritation arose the Hartford Convention of 1814, in which the right, not merely of nullification, but of secession was asserted, and secession on the part of New England was actually threatened. In the face of a foreign war with such a power as Great Britain, it is hard to see how such a convention could be justified. Injuries done to the crews of New England vessels had in large measure produced the war. The real question at issue was whether England had the right to search American vessels for British subjects and carry them away by force, even though they might be naturalized Americans, on the theory of "once a British subject, always a British subject." In freeing Yankee vessels from this invidious "right of search," Madison ought to have been able to count on the support of the Yankees themselves. If they found their pockets touched temporarily, it was none the less to their per-

manent interest to get rid of such an incubus even at serious expense, to say nothing of the maintenance of national dignity, in which Massachusetts had once vied with Virginia. But fortunately, dangerous as it might have been, the Hartford Convention only succeeded in leaving a bad precedent along with the evil odor of its unpatriotic conception. The war was brought to a close, the treaty of Ghent had been signed, our arms had been victorious and our diplomacy had been justified, the embargo was over, and New England was pacified before Madison left the presidency.

Our Navy, on the high seas as on the great lakes, had fairly contested the maritime supremacy of England. Her commerce had been harassed in such a way that her merchants would have been willing to make almost any sacrifice to secure peace. Our privateers had scoured the main with persistence, in spite of the feeble opposition of the British navy, until vessels built on the Clyde and manned by native Englishmen no longer dared to fly the merchant flag of Great Britain. What France in a long continued war, aided by the organizing genius of Napoleon, had never succeeded in accomplishing, American sailors had done. It was a proud day for the new nation when the treaty of Ghent was consummated. The "right of search" was not mentioned in the treaty, but in the eyes of all nations it was everlastingly discredited by virtue of the result of that war. And when, during the administration of Lincoln, England herself denied the same right to us, it was a full recognition that her claims leading up to the war of 1812 were arbitrary and unjust.

In its domestic policy, the administration of Madison was characterized by dignity and conservatism. The bitterness which it created was all directly or indirectly connected with its foreign policy. And the election of Monroe, Madison's Secretary of State, as his successor, was a complete vindication by the popular voice of Madison's course in public life.

JAMES MONROE.
1817-1825.

JAMES MONROE, the fourth Virginian to be elected to the Presidency, was born in Westmoreland County, in 1758, and at the age of 18 years entered the Continental Army as a cadet. He served with credit through the Revolution, and at its close took up the study of law in the office of Jefferson, who, even at that time, was an imposing figure in the politics of Virginia. He was elected to the Legislature in 1782, but his services in that body did not interfere with his legal studies. After the Philadelphia Convention had drawn up the Federal Constitution, Monroe, like Jefferson, was not altogether friendly to the plan adopted. In fact his opposition went farther than that of the latter, who wanted nine States to ratify, or enough to carry the document into effect and the rest to wait until amendments had been adopted. Monroe agreed rather with Patrick Henry and stood against any ratification of Virginia. He was a Republican of the most radical type. Washington, appreciating his genius, sent him to France as the American representative, and he was received with the greatest enthusiasm by the Revolutionists there. But toward the end of his second term, Washington, having gravitated steadily toward a representation of the Federalist or "English" party, thought it wise to recall Monroe and to send Pinckney of South Carolina in his place. The result of this course has been already noted. In 1799 Monroe was elected Governor of Virginia. In 1803 he was the agent of Jefferson in negotiating the purchase of Louisiana. As Secretary of State under Madison he was thoroughly *en rapport* with his chief. Assuming the Presidency in 1817 he became the most popular President with men of all parties that the country had had since Washington. The acquisition of Florida from Spain and the temporary settlement of the slavery agitation by the Missouri Compromise were the most important features of Monroe's administration. He was known as the Great Pacificator. The recognition of Mexico and the South American republics as independent states with the settlement of questions relating thereto, led to the enunciation of the "Monroe Doctrine," to the effect that the United States cannot permit the acquisition or extension by a European government of political power on the American continent.

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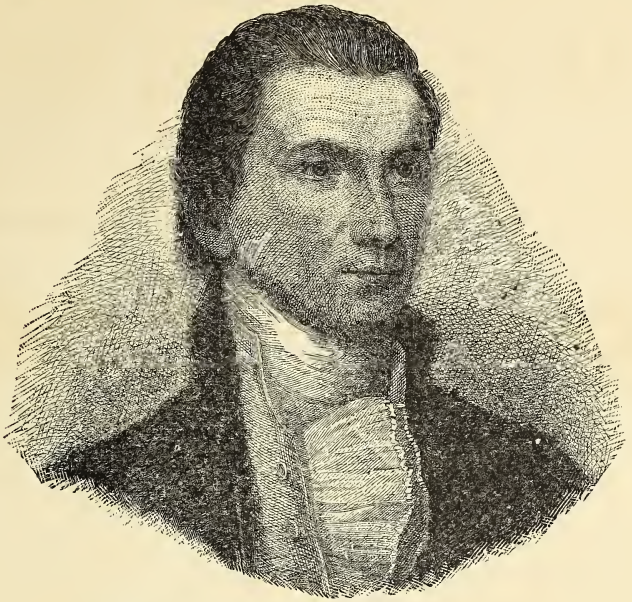
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James Monroe

On his retirement to Oak Hill, Loudon County, Virginia, in 1825, Monroe only interested himself in strictly local affairs. He held the office of justice of the peace, and discharged its duties as conscientiously as if he had never been Chief Magistrate of the whole Republic. He was a visitor to the State University and on one occasion consented to act as delegate to a State convention. But his private affairs soon became involved. He did not know how to limit his hospitality. He fell hopelessly into debt, and, leaving his estate for the partial satisfaction of his creditors, he left the State and came to New York, where he died in the residence of a relative on July 4, 1831.

The administration of Monroe marks the close of a political epoch in American history. The Republican party under that name ended with him, just as the Federalist party had ended with John Adams. Henceforth Whigs and Democrats were to be the great party classifications. The Missouri agitation had brought to the front a great question of constitutional interpretation. The relations of the Constitution to the institution of slavery had been doubtful from the start. In the South Carolina Ratification Convention, Rawlins Lowndes had asserted that the Federal Government would have full power to abolish slavery—even in the States, if the document were

ratified. Rutledge had denied it. Similar assertions had been made in the Georgia and the North Carolina Conventions. Even in Virginia, where the sentiment was strongly with Mason against perpetuating slavery, this argument had been used against the Constitution. But the North had never claimed the right of the Nation to interfere with slavery within the States. But with regard to the Territories and the District of Columbia the only concession made had come from the South. Virginia, having given the Northwest Territory to the Confederation, had consented to the Dane resolution forever prohibiting slavery there. At the same time, the sentiment at the South was growing irritated over a disposition to extend that prohibition to other territory. Louisiana had been admitted 1812, Indiana in 1816, Mississippi in 1817, and Illinois in 1818, and the policy of balancing each slave State by a free one would always leave the free States with a majority in Congress. Southern men felt that as every class of property owned in the North was admitted to the Territories, it was an invidious distinction to bar out what the South looked upon as a perfectly legitimate species of property and one specially recognized by the Constitution, which constituted a large element in the wealth of the Southern States. The invention of the cotton-gin by Eli Whitney in 1793 had given a new turn to industrial development in the Gulf States and the Southwest. Cotton had become the most valuable of agricultural products. No soil on the face of the earth was so well adapted for its cultivation as our own. But slaves in large numbers and under far more rigorous discipline than domestic slavery enforced were necessary to such cultivation. This was the genesis of the cotton-power and also of the slave-power, as such; for, but for this new element, unanticipated by the framers of the Constitution, it is reasonable to believe that the institution itself would have been gradually wiped out, even at the South.

Missouri and Alabama were cotton States. If Alabama were admitted, it must be as a slave State, and the majority of Missouri's population were of the same mind. Alabama's admission could be managed in 1818 by an arrangement for taking in Maine too. Missouri, however, presented a new problem. How far north was the territory of Louisiana to be covered by slave States? This was the question that came up during the Monroe administration. It was the subject of most heated debates, and was finally settled by the "Missouri compromise," proceeding from the fertile brain of Henry Clay, the Kentucky statesman, who had been one of the signers of the Treaty of Ghent, and was already a great power in the House of

Representatives. Missouri was admitted on condition that she should not bar out free negroes who were citizens of other States. It was declared that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except for crime, should be allowed to exist in the Louisiana Territory north of 36° 30′ N.L. This arrangement suited neither side, but was accepted as a last resort. Missouri was finally admitted in 1821.

On the tariff question, Monroe favored moderate protection, and was supported even by Calhoun, of South Carolina, whose name was identified with the Tariff Bill of 1817. It is fair to note, however, that Calhoun was comparatively young at this time, and that his ideas on the subject of governmental system and of governmental policy were in their formative stage. No one of the great statesmen of his period is so little liable to the charge of inconsistency as John C. Calhoun. Probably no man of his time exerted a more positive influence on the future of his country. But as between a tariff and direct taxes, he was probably in full accord with the President in favoring the former. The tendency of Monroe to unite all parties was a peculiar one. It led to a quadruple candidacy for the succession—Jackson, Crawford, Adams, and Clay being the contestants, and standing in the the above named order as regards the number of electoral votes received. The result was an election by the House of Representatives, still under the influence of Clay, who, barred out personally by the fact that he was last in the list, still had the power to compel the election of John Quincy Adams. With the single exception of the Electoral Commission decision in 1877, no choice of a President has created so much doubt as to its equity among the masses. Jackson was their idol. He had had a plurality of electoral votes. His vindication came four years later.

CHAPTER XVIII.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

1825-1829.

John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, son of the Second President of the United States, was born in 1767. He had the advantage of a scholarly education in his early boyhood, but was still a lad when his father went abroad as the representative of the struggling colonies, and he went with him. He passed several years at Paris, in Denmark, and in England, and met in each of those countries a large number of prominent people, by contact with whom he acquired a training that was invaluable to him in after-life. During the presidency of his father and while still a young man he was sent on an embassy to Prussia, and in the course of the trip took occasion to travel to Silesia, of which country a description is given in his published letters. Soon after his return to America he was engaged as Professor of Rhetoric at Harvard College, the leading educational institution of the country. A little later, the Legislature chose him to represent the State in the Senate of the United States. President Madison appreciated his worth and persuaded him to accept a position in the diplomatic service of the country, first as Minister to the Court of St. Petersburgh, and then a Envoy Extraordinary to Great Britain. In the latter capacity he became one of the signers of the treaty of Ghent. Monroe thought better use could be made of John Quincy Adams on this side of the water, and offered him the position of Secretary of State, which was accepted. His capacity for work was something prodigious, and he made a very effective executive. He seemed to have been very little affected by the politics of his father and of the Massachusetts Federalists in general, and, like the former, had a most amiable temper, which could not fail to make friends. But without any of that element which is known as magnetism, he was more popular with public men than with the masses. The method of his election to the Presidency has been already mentioned. It was his course in giving the Secretaryship of State to Henry Clay, who had caused him to be elected President, that was denounced by the fiery-tongued and thin-



J. Q. Adams

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fingered John Randolph of Roanoke as a "Coalition of Puritan and Blackleg."

The administration of John Quincy Adams was a temperate and a just one. It made foreign powers respect America, and at the same time compelled them to recognize the fact that we could keep all agreements on our own part, and were as little inclined to impose on others as to be imposed upon ourselves. Its domestic policy was also well chosen. Nothing was done to irritate the growing sensitiveness of the Southern States, with whose peculiar institution the President could have no sympathy, and was not suspected of having any. But when Adams left the Presidency he thought it wise to take a course different from that to which he had been constrained as much by a sense of official delicacy as by realization of public policy.

He had only been out of the Chief Magistracy for two years when his own district chose to elect him a member of the Lower House of the National Legislature, and he occupied that position. His place in the House was always filled. He kept track of every bill that was presented, and his work in committee was as hard as that which he had performed as Secretary of State and as President. He was the Banerges of New England. No member could count himself secure from Adams' caustic tongue. Few cared to meet him in debate. Many were more eloquent than he, and hundreds had more force upon the stump or before a miscellaneous audience. But all through his public life this remarkable man had kept a memorandum-book in which he had preserved telling facts which had come under his personal observation. It was this memorandum-book of which his colleagues stood in more fear than of Adams. They could count on having any individual inconsistency or any false statement of alleged fact exposed by the production of John Quincy Adams' memorandum. It came to be a nightmare to his fellow members. But for this, great as his abilities were, he could have expected only rather ill-natured ridicule from the members of the opposite side. In the first place, he had made it a rule never to fight a duel, never to send a challenge or receive one—and that was not at all a popular course at an age when even such men as Clay and Randolph met on the duelling field, and similar affairs were of almost constant occurrence. Then, too, Adams had became an abolitionist, and was not recognized by either of the two parties as representing its views. He had only a small following, even in Massachusetts. There were a few hot opponents of slavery on principle among the Quakers of Pennsylvania, but elsewhere they were hardly to be found. In the face of such

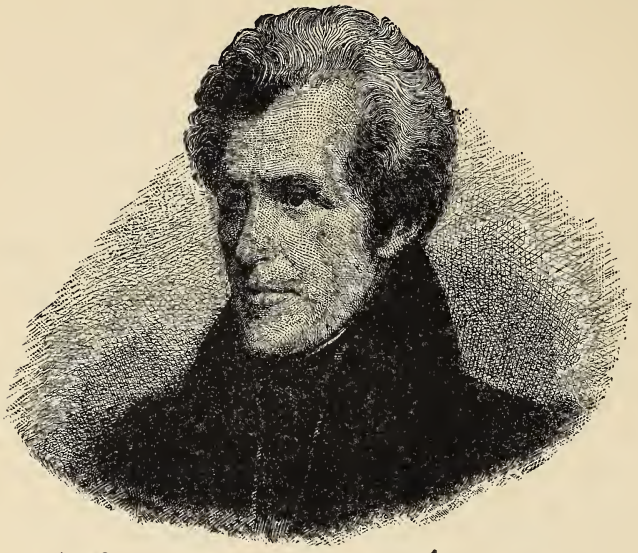
public sentiment, North and South, the Ex-President not only avowed his belief in the abolition heresy, but took up the cudgels in its defence. At the same time that he disclaimed all personal responsibility except to God and his constituents, Adams was acting in such a way as to offend the sincerest convictions of his Southern confreres and to almost justify them in treating him as a crank. He simply deluged the House with petitions against slavery, until the reading of such documents became a nuisance which threatened to interfere with all public business. And when it was attempted to refer them without reading, the New England giant turned upon his critics, with an analysis and historical treatment of the right of petition and its importance to the cause of liberty in all ages, backed up by all the learning of which he was master, and thrice buttressed in the results of his laborious individual research. This was irrefutable. It subjected his opponents to a disagreeable alternative and tickled his Massachusetts constituents. In 1842 Mr. Adams went so far in illustrating the right of petition as to present a request for a dissolution of the Union bearing many signatures, and to demand for it consideration. He had come to have so many enemies that an effort was afterwards made to use this against him by insinuating that the spirit of the Hartford Convention was not yet dead, and that what the New Englanders really wanted was a dissolution of the Union. Such an assault was unfair; but characteristic of the politics of that period. Mr. Adams spent eighteen years of almost daily combat in the House of Representatives, and died in 1848, during a session of that body, in which he was still a member.

ANDREW JACKSON.

1829-1837.

ANDREW JACKSON, seventh President of the United States, was born in 1767, and was a native of South Carolina. His father's family had come from Scotland, and had lived but a very short time in this country. At the age of thirteen years the boy enlisted in the army and fought under Sumter, having left a school where he was being educated for the ministry. He began the study of law in 1784, and soon afterward received the appointment of Solicitor for the Western District of South Carolina, which soon became the State of Tennessee. A man of absolute fearlessness and sound sense soon makes himself felt in a new country, and the capacity of Jackson met recognition in a very short time. He was a member of the Convention which formed the State Constitution in 1796. After this he was chosen successively a Congressman, a United States Senator, and a Judge of the State Supreme Court. Up to this time his reputation had been that of a civilian alone, but on being made Major-General of the militia of the State of Tennessee, he proved his ability as an organizer, and when, in 1813, there was a formidable outbreak of the Creek Indians to be repressed, Jackson was given a commission as Major-General in command of the United States forces, and proceeded to chastise the aborigines. It has been said, and with some justice, that the power of the red man in the United States was finally broken by his victory over the Creeks, on March 27, 1814. He turned his arms at once against the British forces which had landed on the soil of Louisiana, and in December of the same year won one of the most signal victories of the war in his defense of the city of New Orleans against Gen. Packenham.

From this time out, the popularity of Gen. Jackson was limited by no State or sectional boundaries. On the cession of Florida to the United States by Spain he was made Governor of that country, and later was again chosen United States Senator by the Legislature of Tennessee. His struggle for the Presidency in 1824 having been defeated by the coalition between John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay, he ran again in 1828, and in that year was successful. In 1832 he was re-elected, and, after having secured the choice of Martin Van



Andrew Jackson

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Buren as his successor, retired to private life on March 4, 1837. He died in 1845.

From the standpoint of constitutional development the administration of Jackson is one of the most interesting in American history. He was more distinctly a party President than any of those who had preceded him in the Chief Magistracy. Even Jefferson had dealt gently with the Federalists whom he found in positions of trust and honor under the National government. Removals, except for cause, had been few and far between. To Jackson belongs the credit of having first fully appreciated the true genius of American institutions, which is not satisfied with a mere change in the occupancy of the White House, and which demands that every finger with which the Federal government touches the citizen shall pulsate with the same life as the heart which has been given by popular will to the centre of the Federal system. "To the victors belong the spoils," was a rather crude formulation of a great principle. It meant that citizens in New York or in South Carolina could have but little interest in National elections if their votes only removed one family from the Executive Mansion, and installed another, without effecting any change in postmasters, who had to deal daily with almost every family, in internal revenue collectors, with whom citizens must come in contact ; and custom-house officers, who had to execute, and often, in the first instance, interpret the laws governing import duties. It was then, in connection with the exercise of the appointing power, that Jackson first took a new departure, and left behind him that experimental statemanship which distrusted the popular intelligence and only half performed the popular will.

But this was not all. Reading the Constitution as it was written, he saw that it was folly in a President to abjure the use of the veto power, or to limit the use of that power to cases in which the Constitution was clearly violated by a proposed law. He appreciated the fact that our system is not a mere imitation or parody on that of Great Britain, that abstinence from the use of a given prerogative may in time come to have the effect of a repudiation of that prerogative, and that a fair interpretation of fundamental law gave to the president the right, and imposed on him the obligation of vetoing not merely unconstitutional bills, but any that, in his opinion, were not in the public interest. On this belief he based his whole course of action. He took what the Constitution had given him, and assumed for the executive legislative power equal to that of one-sixth of each House in the National Congress. For doing so he was severely

attacked by his party opponents, whose schemes he had thwarted, but their animadversions had little effect. In vain did Webster proclaim the theory, that this was "an extraordinary power, to be exercised only in peculiar and marked cases," and that "it was vested in the President, doubtless, as a guard against hasty and ill-considered legislation, and against any act, inadvertently passed, which might seem to encroach on the just authority of other branches of the government." This was an administration with which facts were of more importance than theories. Fulminations of threats of impeachment only made the Executive more determined. Secure in his own sense of right, he defied all comers. His second election made it clear that the people were with him, and the practice for which he set the example has been approved by time and experience. No President now thinks of following any other course than that of Jackson, in his use of the veto power.

It is not to the purpose in this sketch to go into a complete analysis of the struggle over the United States Bank. That there was a ring, or combination in Congress, of men, more or less interested pecuniarily in this bank, or socially in the men who were running it, is reasonably certain. That its management was not all that it should have been, was afterwards clearly proven. In taking the decisive step of taking away from the bank, United States deposits, however, Jackson was actuated by an idea far more comprehensive than that of crushing the bank. It was his honest belief that an independent treasury would be better for the Government. He was also convinced that the Executive Department in charge of the Treasury is the legal custodian of all funds belonging to the nation. He was opposed to paper currency, too, and believed that the step he had taken was in the direction of a return to specie. It is hardly necessary to say that on all these points, as on the ones before alluded to, later experience has vindicated the judgment of Andrew Jackson.

This modernizing of executive procedure and of executive policy could hardly go on without making the administration a stormy one. The passage of a strong protective tariff law led to the bitterness in South Carolina, which found full vent in the halls of Congress. Calhoun openly announced the theory of nullification which had been contained in the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions of 1797 and 1798, and South Carolina prepared to act on that theory. Under a weaker President, action might have been taken which would have allowed the precedent. But the hero of New Orleans was as intent on see-

ing every law of Congress enforced in every part of the Union as he was in maintaining the full prerogatives of his own position. He gave full and fair notice that resistance to the enforcement of any such law would be regarded as treason and put down by force. To personal friends, he intimated that he would hang Calhoun as a traitor, if any bloodshed was caused by the latter's advice. There was no bloodshed. Calhoun had not contemplated any, and was not prepared for any such proclamation by the President. But the moral effect of the President's promptness was lost through the action of Congress. On the bank question Mr. Calhoun had become a temporary ally of the Whig party, and that party repaid his assistance at the expense of all its traditions and all its principles. Mr. McLane, Secretary of the Treasury, and a moderate protectionist, had prepared a new tariff bill on the protectionist plan, which would have given some relief to South Carolina, without striking at manufacturing interests in other States. Calhoun had rejected this proposition with scorn. It was all that the Administration had to offer. But Gulian Crommelin Verplanck, of New York, Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives, proposed a sweeping reduction bill, and another was submitted by Mr. Littell, of "The Living Age," to Henry Clay. Verplanck was a "Bank" Democrat, and a friend to what was known in New York City as "Freedom of Exchange." His scheme would have been accepted if Clay had not frustrated him with Littell's bill, which came to be known as the Clay Compromise. It provided for an gradual reduction of duties for ten years, or until 1843, with a proviso that at the end of that term they should not be more than 20 per cent. ad valorem. This was a complete surrender of the whole doctrine of protection. It was accepted as such by Calhoun, who held that while it did not settle anything with regard to States' rights or nullification, it did surrender the right of Congress to levy duties for any other object than the raising of revenue. The President did not feel justified in vetoing this compromise. But the story runs that he did not hesitate to express deep regret that Calhoun had not given him a chance to hang him. Compromises were not much in President Jackson's line of business. But the result of this whole agitation had been to make the reputation of the South Carolina statesman shine with renewed splendor. His astuteness had won a victory in spite of Executive menace and Northern interests. From the nettle danger he had plucked the flower safety It was a prize fully worthy of the risk involved in its acquisition.

On some questions involving the rights of States, however, Jackson was inclined to be more complacent. The Creek Indians had been ceded, by treaty with the United States, certain lands within the limits of the State of Georgia. The Legislature of that State passed a bill opening up such lands to settlement, and the Indians employed counsel to carry this case to the Supreme Court, and there to test the constitutionality of that law. In the court of final resort it was decided to be contrary to the Constitution of the United States, inasmuch as a treaty constitutes the supreme law of the land. When Jackson heard of this decision, he said : "Well, Marshall (the chief justice) has laid down the law. Now, let us see how he will enforce it." The law was never enforced. The Creeks were removed to Indian Territory in spite of the Supreme Court's verdict in their favor, and white settlers soon took possession of the land which they had held in Georgia, and made the wilderness blossom as the rose. In this case it may be conceded that Jackson's failure to use force against the State of Georgia was a little revolutionary. For no such decision can ever be enforced, except through the Executive, and a refusal to enforce it is a refusal to maintain the law. But here, as in all other instances, the President did what he thought was for the best, and if his law has not been accepted by the critics, it is hard to disagree with his sense of expediency. He made few errors, even in constitutional interpretation, and his heart was always close to that of the people. The name of "Old Hickory" will be honored among the American masses as long as America is a nation.

CHAPTER XIX.

MARTIN VAN BUREN.

1837-1841.

MARTIN VAN BUREN, of New York, was born in 1782, and was, therefore, the first of our Presidents who had taken no part, civil or military, in the Revolution. He was one of those great masters of the art of mathematical politics who have, at various times, dominated the Empire State, and his tact was equal to his astuteness. He was United States Senator from 1821 to 1827, and was chosen Governor of New York in 1829, sent as Minister to England in 1831, elected Vice-President in 1832, and became President in 1837 as the personally-selected successor of Andrew Jackson. After his retirement from the Presidency, Van Buren was twice a candidate before the people for the same office. In 1844 he ran independently, and in 1848 was the candidate of the Free Soil party. He died in 1862.

Van Buren's administration was, in some respects, a colorless one. His name is not identified with any great principle in constitutional construction. Iowa was admitted to the Union as a free State in 1838 to balance Florida. But the electricity of anti-slavery agitation was in the air, and the debates in both Houses of Congress was characterized by even more bitterness than during the time of Jackson. This bitterness was indirectly increased by the condition of affairs in the commercial world. An era of vast expansion of currency and of consequent general speculation had come to a close. Jackson's war on the Bank of the United States had precipitated the panic, and when it came in 1837 Van Buren was just entering upon his presidential term. It was most illogical for the people to hold him in any way responsible for the cataclysm which ensued. But at such times even the most intelligent of nations is likely to do injustice to those who happen to be in power when the cyclone comes. It was true, too, that Van Buren, as the chosen friend of Jackson, had to inherit the odium of the latter's financial course as well as reflect the glory which shone from the firmness and consistency in civic life of the victor of New Orleans. The condition of affairs had not had a parallel in the history of America, and has never since been repeated, although we have had great panics, and the speculative world has been shaken to its depths several times. Nearly all the banks suspended, and revolution was



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threatened in the commercial cities. Van Buren's attitude through it all was that of a gentleman and of a statesman. All that the United States Treasury could do to relieve distress was done, but, as in the case of President Grant's attempt to meet a panic during his second term, these efforts availed little. The collapse had had its causes, of which it was the natural and inevitable result. Clear as this fact must have been to all thinking men, there were not lacking opposition orators in Congress to lay upon the Administration the whole blame for what had occurred. That the people listened to them is evident from the fact that in 1840 Van Buren, as the regular candidate of the Democratic party, only secured sixty electoral votes, and was overwhelmingly defeated by the Whig candidate.

The fact that Van Buren ran for the Presidency four times in all, and three after his incumbency, does not in any way indicate that he was a chronic office-seeker and still less does it leave room for logical inference that he over-estimated his own capacity, or his own popularity. That he loved power is true beyond a shadow of a doubt, but it was power to put others in office that he coveted; and in each case his ineffective candidacy for the Presidency was either a blow at his enemies in the State or Nation, or was expected to benefit his friends in one fashion or another. Mr. Van Buren had not been renominated by the Democracy in 1844. He felt that an injustice had been done him, and that he had been made the victim of an agreement among the pro-slavery men in the Democratic party North and South. It is true that he was not in sympathy with the ideas of his party, on the great question of the hour. He did not favor the annexation of Texas. But Van Buren was inclined to claim that on the issue of extending the area of slave territory in America, he stood a great deal closer to the ideas of Jefferson, the founder of the party, than did Polk or Calhoun. He thought he saw a chance, by an independent candidacy, to defeat Polk, and his action was based upon that motive. He always claimed that Clay was fairly elected in that year, and counted out in New York and Louisiana. In 1848 he was still further estranged from his party, and as the candidate of the "Barnburners," or anti-slavery Democrats in the State of New York, received the nomination of the Free Soilers. He contributed thus to the defeat of Gen. Cass, whom he hated personally and despised as a "dough-face" politically. But throughout his active political life, Van Buren was a power in New York, and as careful a student of practical political methods as of political philosophy. He is the author of a comprehensive work on "Political Parties in America."

WM. HENRY HARRISON—JOHN TYLER.

1841-1845.

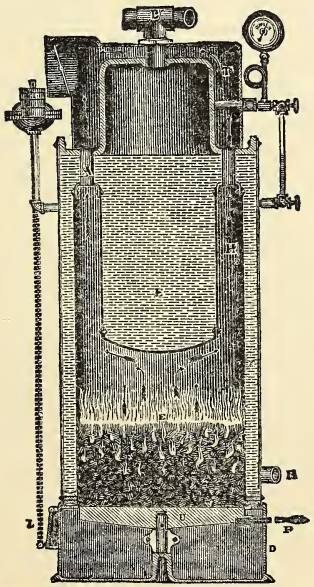
William Henry Harrison was born in Virginia in 1773. He was a son of Benjamin Harrison, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and elsewhere alluded to as a correspondent of Washington. The son's military career was begun after the death of his father, when in 1792 he joined the army which Wayne was leading against the natives of the Northwest, and was given the rank of Ensign. In 1797 he left the army, and four years later became Governor of Indiana. In this capacity his name is identified with the passage by the United States Congress of a law providing for the sale of Western lands in small parcels, which he pressed upon the attention of the National Legislature, and which, with its logical followers, the Homestead and Timber Laws, is the real basis of the development of the great West. A war against the Indian allies of the English in Canada broke out in 1811, and Harrison was made Commander-in-Chief of the United States Army. Tecumseh, a Shawnee chieftain, had organized a confederacy of all the Western Indians, and to add strength to that confederacy had made the aborigines believe that his brother, known only as "The Prophet," was a messenger sent by the Great Father, under whose guidance the Indians could not fail to drive out the white men from their territory, and restore for themselves the good old times when they could hunt where they liked, fish in whatever waters suited them, and enjoy the satisfaction of tomahawking and scalping one another without the interference of any impertinent outsiders. The religious idea had given fanatical impetus to this rebellion. The Indians were well armed, their style of fighting was desultory, but fearfully effective against scattered and unprotected pioneers, and, if not dealt with successfully, they were likely to do a great deal of damage and shed a great deal of blood. The defeat of "The Prophet," with all his forces, at Tippecanoe, gave Gen. Harrison a great reputation and a soubriquet at the same time. The war soon merged itself into the contest between the United States and Great Britain. Tecumseh joined the British, and was killed in battle in 1813. Harrison pursued the British invaders into Canada, where he completely routed them in the Battle of the Thames (Oct. 5, 1813). He resigned his commission in 1814, and two years later



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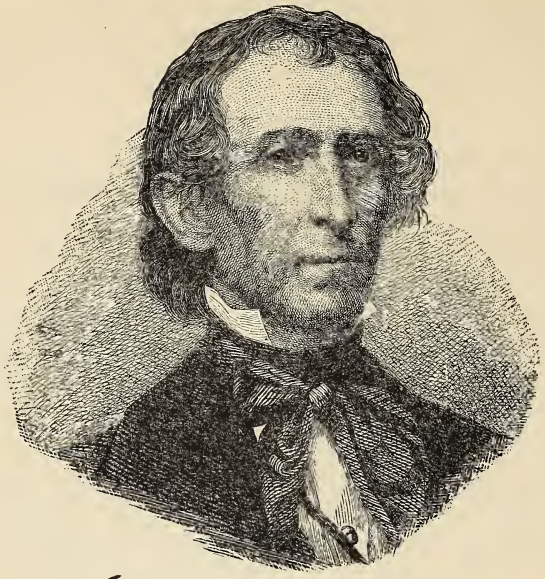
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was elected to Congress. In 1824 he was chosen a member of the United States Senate, and four years later went as Ambassador to the United States of Colombia. He remained there only one year before his recall in 1829. This marked Harrison's temporary retirement from public life. The next twelve years he spent as a clerk of a petty county court in Ohio. But his talents had not been forgotten, and the Whig party unsuccessfully nominated him for President of the United States in 1836. The influence of Jackson was too great, and the success of Van Buren was a pronounced one. But four years later Harrison was again nominated. Then followed the famous campaign of 1840. Nothing like it had been known in our political history. Harrison's friends were those of the party which believed in a United States Bank, in a protective tariff, and in internal improvements at the expense of the National Government. Henry Clay and Daniel Webster, the great Whig chieftains, who had themselves been contestants for the Presidential nomination, worked in harmony for Harrison's election. But the characteristic of that struggle was not a clashing of Toledo blades in the hands of oratorical champions. The financial panic of 1837 had not been altogether recovered from. The American people felt that things had been going wrong, and there was a strong impression that the party of Clay and Webster offered a remedy for all evils which flesh was heir to. Harrison was the chosen leader of that party, and his career had just enough of the Cincinnatus in it to attract distinctively popular support. Therefore this was a "log cabin and hard cider" campaign. The people were taking a hand in. Brass bands were used as they had never been used before. Fireworks made brilliant the darkest nights, and powder was wasted *ad libitum* in stunning the ears of friends and foes alike. This may be looked upon as the prototype of our modern national elections. There could be but one result—the defeat of Martin Van Buren.

The inauguration of Harrison on March 4th, was an event greeted with the heartiest public congratulation. At last the country had got rid of the party which would crush our industries by taking off protective duties, would refuse us internal improvements, and had already plunged us into financial ruin by upsetting the United States Bank. Everybody was jubilant. Even the opposing party began to more than half believe that the millennium had come in spite of them. The death of Harrison, one month after his inauguration, was felt as a public calamity. The Whigs did not begin to realize how great the calamity was to them, until some time after his successor had taken the oath of

office. They had been robbed of the fruits of victory, just as they grasped them for the first time in their party existence. Providence seeemed, indeed, to have been working into the hands of the Democrats.

JOHN TYLER had been nominated for Vice-President, on the Whig ticket, for the purpose of conciliating the South. He was a Virginian and was born in 1790. His family was a good one, and his father had not only been an officer in the Revolutionary Army, but had been afterwards a Judge of the Federal Court of Admiralty. The future President was a most precocious boy. He entered William and Mary College, when only twelve years old, and graduated at the age of seventeen. He was admitted to the bar in his nineteenth year, and, as soon as he attained his majority, was elected to the Legislature. Five times he was a candidate for the position, and on each occasion was successful almost without opposition. His Congressional course began in 1816 and it is not known that on any single occasion he opposed the ideas of the States Rights Party, of which Calhoun was the leader. His nomination for the Vice-Presidency was entirely unexpected and could hardly have occurred, but for the general idea in both parties that the Vice-President was only to be regarded as a figurehead. He had stood with Jackson against the United States Bank, and the Whigs soon saw that it was worse than useless to expect any reaction under his administration. The Cabinet which Harrison had chosen was retained until its members voluntarily resigned. But it became evident, that in spite of the opposition of the men who had made him President, Mr. Tyler was inclined to bend all his energies to the acquisition of Texas, and the consequent extension of slave territory, and it was not long before all the members of the cabinet, had concluded not to further compromise their position as Whigs, and had resigned, with the single exception of Daniel Webster, Harrison's Secretary of State, who found the office thoroughly congenial to him, and who had on hand one or two diplomatic negotiations which furnished him an excuse for staying. The treaty of Washington was one of the results of his incumbency. It was negotiated by Lord Ashburton, on behalf of England, and besides fixing the boundary line between Maine and Canada, which had become a bone of contention and had almost led to hostilities, it extended the list of extraditable crimes, so as to include, besides murder and forgery, assault with intent to commit murder, piracy, arson, robbery and the utterance of forged paper. It also formulated the first Convention



John Tyler

with Great Britain, for full co-operation in putting down the slave-trade. An effort in this direction had been made in 1824, but after negotiation the Convention had fallen to the ground. England had wanted to include American waters among those in which the right of search for slaves might be exercised, and had wanted to try for piracy, all persons found on board a ship laden with slaves. Both these provisions had been stricken out by the United States Senate, and as a consequence the British government had refused to ratify it. Now, under the treaty of Washington, it was arranged with regard to the slave-trade (art. VIII, IX, and XI) that, "whereas the United States of America, and Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, are determined that so far as it may be in their power, it shall be effectually abolished; the parties mutually stipulate that each shall prepare, equip and maintain in service, *on the coast of Africa*, a sufficient and adequate squadron or naval force of vessels of suitable numbers and descriptions, to carry in all not less than eighty guns, to enforce separately and respectively, the laws, rights and obligations of the two countries for

the suppression of the slave-trade." And again, "Whereas, notwithstanding all efforts that may be made on the coast of Africa, for suppressing the slave-trade, the facilities for carrying on that traffic, and avoiding the vigilance of cruisers by the fraudulent use of flags, and other means, are so great, and the temptations for pursuing it, while a market can be found for slaves, so strong, as that the desired result may be long delayed, unless all markets be shut against the purchase of African negroes; the parties to this treaty agree that they will unite in all becoming remonstrances with any and all powers within whose dominions such markets are allowed to exist; and that they will urge upon all such powers, the propriety and duty of closing such markets forever."

At the same time that Webster was promising England that the United States would remonstrate with foreign powers against keeping open their markets for African negroes, his chief, President Tyler, was arranging for an extension of the American market for slaves by the acquisition of Texas. That State was independent. The slaughter at the Alamo had been avenged at San Jacinto. Santa Anna and the whole Mexican army had been repulsed, and the independence of Texas had been recognized by the United States in 1837, and by England, Belgium and France in 1840. It was clamoring for admission to the Federal Republic.

Webster was handicapped by his Massachusetts training, and by his fear of Massachusetts sentiment. It was clear that some other man would have to take the position of Secretary of State to carry through the diplomatic details in the annexation. His Whig enemies who had scoffed at the God-like Daniel for holding on to his Cabinet position and reaping the honors and emoluments of office from the disgrace of his own party, did not doubt his willingness to carry his subserviency to any extent. But even they saw that Webster was unavailable for such a purpose. He resigned from the State Department in 1843, and was succeeded by John C. Calhoun. The latter was in the zenith of his power and influence. Unlike Webster and Clay, he was great in logic as in eloquence, the most effective parliamentarian of his day, and a man who feared no conclusion to which his own premises could bring him. Webster might hate slavery, acknowledge his hatred, and still vote for a law compelling him personally to help a United States marshal drag a fugitive through the streets of Boston and deliver him up to his master. Clay, believing in a protective tariff, might frame a law representing just the opposite principle, and support it. Calhoun never made such mistakes. Secure in

the respect of a large section of the American people, he could afford to be consistent. Enshrined in their affections, his memory will live longer than that of either the greatest of compromisers or the greatest of dirt-eaters. We may doubt the wisdom of Calhoun's political philospphy, or believe in it ; but in either case it is necessary to concede that he was a Cato, not a Cicero; a Coriolanus, not a Junius Brutus; a Walsingham, and not a Bacon. The man who is true to himself wins applause, even from his enemies. So Calhoun was universally respected, and he was wisely chosen to conclude Texan negotiations as Secretary of State.

Among the opponents of annexation there was at least one prominent member of the United States Senate who merits a similar eulogy. Thomas H. Benton, of Missouri, was an honest man, and a good logician, and had the courage of his convictions. He was known through all his Senatorial career as "Old Bullion," because of his ineradicable hostility to paper money, had been the direct personal representative of Andrew Jackson in Congress, and had met Calhoun, Clay and Webster in combination on the United States Bank question. With a logic as sharp as the surgeon's knife he dissected this scheme to annex Texas, and, in one of his speeches in 1844, outlined the whole plan upon which the Southern Confederacy was built up in 1861. He said that the ultimate object of annexation was to create a vast empire extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, with human slavery as its keystone and utterly independent of the United States of America.

Benton's opposition was not listened to. In November, 1844, an election was held, in which Polk defeated Clay, with the assistance of Birney and Van Buren. The issue had been annexation, and the result gave new courage to Tyler. Calhoun had never lacked courage, he had only lacked opportunity. All the preliminaries were rushed through, and a joint resolution pressed through Congress for the annexation of Texas. It was signed by Tyler on the 3d of March, 1845, and upon the next day Polk took the oath of office. Tyler had accomplished what he had set out to do. He was the first Vice-President to succeed to the Chief Magistracy, and it seemed when he went out of office as though each party in all succeeding contests would recognize the necessity of putting up a strong man for the second place on its ticket.

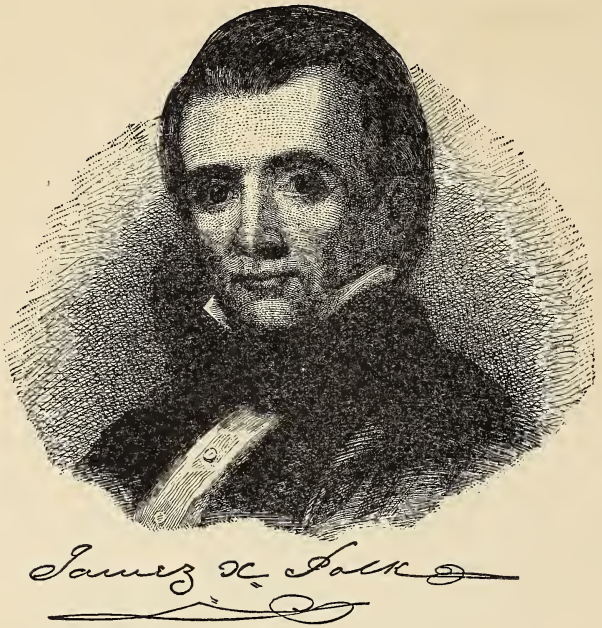
John Tyler lived to see the fulfillment of Benton's prophecy. In 1861 he was president of a peace congress, held in the City of Washington. But all his efforts to prevent a civil war were unavailing He died in 1862.

CHAPTER XX.

JAMES K. POLK.

1845-1849.

James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was born of a North of Ireland family in North Carolina, 1795. Though his parents were not rich they appreciated the value of education for their son, and he was sent to the University of North Carolina. Having finished his course there he began to study law in the office of Felix Grundy, already a well known practitioner in Tennessee. In 1820 Polk was admitted to the bar, and three years after was elected to Congress. His service in that body was a long and honorable one. In 1836 he was elected to the Speakership, but in 1839 resigned his seat in order to take the Governorship of Tennessee. His nomination by the Democratic party for the Presidency in 1844 was as much a surprise to him as to the country. "Texas" and "54° 40′, or fight" were the watchwords on which his party relied. The latter referred to the Oregon boundary of the United States, about which there was a dispute with Great Britain. Like the preceding National contest, it was a hot and noisy one. Henry Clay, the Whig Achilles,—"Harry" Clay, as he was known from one end of the country to the other,—was the candidate of the opposition. It was his final struggle for an honor to which he was entitled, if conspicuous ability has a title to recognition, but which had always eluded his grasp, just because there were too many people in the country who did not enjoy his fatal compromises; although they admired his brilliancy and adhered still to the Whig party. If Clay had been on the Democratic side that year, with the sentiment of territorial aggrandizement and the maintenance of national honor behind him, he would have had a walk-over. His personal characteristics would have lent strength to his advocacy of that party's cause. He would not have won by a scratch, as Polk did. But the Whigs were in an illogical position, which might almost be regarded as a parallel of the predicament in which Federalism found itself in 1814. Objection to any extension of slave territory was the only logical argument against acquisition of the Lone Star State. But the Whigs, as a party, never dared to say that they were opposed to extension of



slave territory, except in special instances, and for reasons not affecting the cause of human liberty. On the "54°, 40′" cry they could only bring forward a plea for temporizing. In the mean time the Liberty Party was in the field in the great Whig States of the North. It was holding mass meetings at the cross-roads in hundreds of townships, and its supporters, more logical than the Whigs, were splitting their throats with the refrain :

"Railroads to emancipation
Cannot rest on Clay foundation,
And the road which Polk directs us
Leads to slavery and to Texas."

They had a reason for opposing annexation; but after the tariff surrender to Calhoun, they could not trust Clay to prevent such annexation. He might surrender again at any time. And while the number of voters in each State who adhered to the Liberty Party was comparatively small, nearly all the voters were drawn from the Whigs. The result showed their power to pull down a Whig candidate. For in New York alone Birney defeated the Clay electoral ticket. The election of Polk, as before noted, was an encouragement to Tyler to go right on with his Texan negotiations. So when Mr. Polk entered

the White House almost the first business he had to deal with was the protest of M. Almonte, the Mexican Minister, that his county would have to regard the annexation of Texas as an act of warlike aggression.

Mr. Polk was in full sympathy with the course of his predecessor, He was bound to have Texas, war or no war. But for a little time hostilities were delayed. Mexico was not in a position to make her long for war. If Mr. Polk had been contented to take Texas without making a fight over her southwestern boundary, Santa Anna's indignation would have smothered itself in a protest. But the boundary dispute was taken up by the United States in a form which left to a self-respecting administration in Mexico no alternative but war. Troops had been despatched into territory claimed by Mexico, and hostilities had then taken place. That Taylor's move on Corpus Christi was ordered by the War Department at Washington has never been disputed. He had been ordered by the Mexican General Ampudia, to retire to the east of the Neuces River, and it was not until Taylor, acting under instructions, had refused to do so, that Mexican troops crossed the Rio Grande. In other words, the territory between Neuces and Rio Grande was in dispute. Texas claimed it. Mexico claimed it. Federal troops entered it first, and, when they had refused to go out, Mexican soldiers came in also. In the face of this state of affairs, Congress passed a resolution declaring that a state of war existed by the act of the Republic of Mexico.

President Polk must have known that the opposition to the war in Congress did not half represent the popular sentiment against it. In May, 1846, and in September of that year, he took occasion to argue the justice of the American position in his messages to Congress. He pointed out that the Rio Grande was the western boundary of Louisiana, as we purchased it from France in 1803, that the Republic of Texas had always claimed the Rio Grande as her western boundary, that Santa Anna had recognized the boundary in his treaty with Texas, and the United States had exercised jurisdiction to the west of the Neuces. Opponents of the Government policy in both Houses of Congress jumped on the fallacies of such arguments. They pointed out that in 1818 we had re-ceded to Spain all territory west of the Sabine, showed that Texas, in her State Constitution, had not claimed the Rio Grande as a boundary at all, that jurisdiction up to that river had never been exercised, and that Santa Anna's alleged treaty was only a memorandum made while he was a prisoner of war, which could not be held to bind his country in any way. Among the

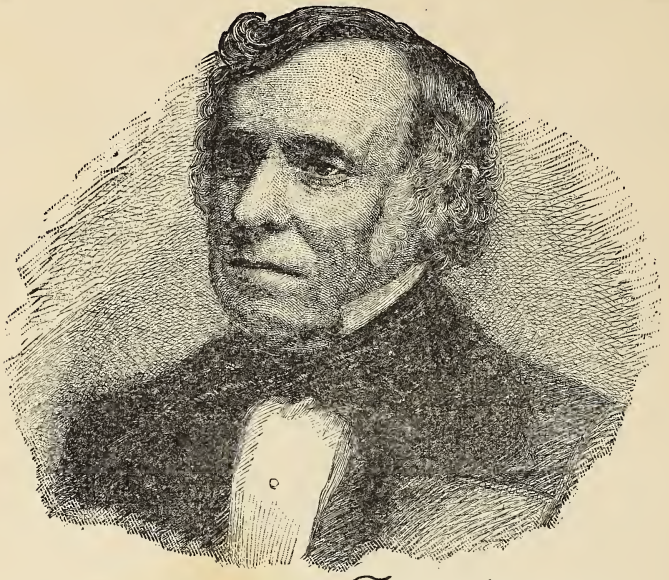
foremost critics of the Administration in the Lower House was one young man, a new member from Illinois, who was destined to play a large part in the country's future. Abraham Lincoln was serving his first term in the National Legisiature.

The success of our arms could have no effect in mollifying Northern severity toward the conception of the war. It was believed that sectional rather than national glory had been its motive. And when the "Wilmot Proviso," in 1846, crystallized this opposition in a form wherein it was not hampered by fears of surrendering the dignity of the United States, it was a surprise to Mr. Calhoun to note how much sentiment appeared to exist north of Mason and Dixon's line against the consummation of his project. The "Proviso" was presented by a Northern Democrat, and declared that "as an express and fundamental condition to the acquisition of any territory from the Republic of Mexico by the United States, neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory." It became the rallying cry of the Free Soil Party. But this was not all. In many Northern districts no Whig who had opposed the "Proviso" could hope to be returned. Of course, this condition was rejected with scorn by the United States Senate (August 8, 1846), and had no effect except to perpetuate the slavery and anti-slavery feud.

ZACHARY TAYLOR—MILLARD FILLMORE.

1849-1853.

Zachary Taylor, twelfth President of the United States, was born in Orange County, Virginia, in 1784. His father was Colonel Richard Taylor, who had served in the American army all through the Revolution. The family removed to Kentucky, and were among the earliest settlers of Louisville, where the son grew to manhood with very few educational advantages. He entered the army in his twenty-fourth year, and was soon promoted to a captaincy. His services in the war with Tecumseh and his Indians evinced sense as well as bravery in the young soldier. His defense of Fort Harrison, on the Wabash River, with a force of only fifty men, against several hundred savages, won the compliments of all his superiors. Althrough the war of 1812, he was kept busy fighting Great Britain's Indian allies. Next to Gen. Harrison, he was the best-known Indian fighter in the West, and was most feared by the natives. He was a colonel in the Black Hawk war in 1832, and was sent to Florida four years afterwards to assist in putting down the Seminole rebellion, which, before it was ended, cost the country $50,000,000, and thousands of men. He won a victory at Okechobee, and was made Commander-in-Chief of the forces in Florida, with the rank of brigadier-general. On the passage of the joint resolution annexing Texas, in 1485, General Taylor was ordered to Texas, and, under special directions from the War Department, crossed the Neuces into disputed territory, marched over a large extent of uninhabited country, and occupied the east bank of the Rio Grande. He had only 2,300 men, but defeated a Mexican force of 6,000, under General Austa, at Palo Alta, on May 8th, and, after 50,000 volunteers had been called for, was made Major-General and ordered to invade Mexico. With 6,625 men, on September 9th, he invested Monterey, defended by 10,000 Mexicans, and the place capitulated after ten days of siege. The actual fighting lasted for three days. General Scott having taken a strong detatchment to advance on the City of Mexico, by way of Vera Cruz, Taylor was left with only 500 regular troops and 5,000 volunteers to meet 21,000 Mexican soldiers, under Santa Anna. Under these conditions he fought, what was the decisive battle of the war, at Buena Vista.* The result was a comptete rout for the Mexicans.



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The popularity of General Taylor was largely based upon this victory. The odds against him had been nearly four to one. His sobriquet of "Old Rough and Ready," became a synonym for valor in every American household. And so it happened that the soldier who had been first to begin hostilities in a war to which the Whig party had been unfriendly, and whose occupation of the country between the Neuces and the Rio Grande was held by that party to have been unjust and contrary to the law of nations, came to be the candidate of the Whigs for President. It was known that he simply obeyed the directions of the Government at Washington, and he was exonerated from any personal responsibility for precipitating the war. In the Whig Convention his friends had to meet the candidacy of both the two parliamentary chieftains of the Whig organization. Webster, the idol of New England, who had never yet secured a nomination for the chief magistracy, and Clay, who had tried and failed so many times, were each anxious to head the party, but neither could secure the prize. It was felt that the nomination of Taylor would be equivalent to his election, and "availability" decided the question.

Taylor's election settled nothing politically, and slavery was still the hinge upon which all other issues swung to and fro. Neither party cared to make it unnecessarily prominent. Both were divided within their own lines. Little by little the negro was pushing to the front, and more and more with each year did the statesmen of each party submit every piece of proposed legislation to the touchstone of sectional approval. At the time that the Constitution was adopted, every State except Massachusetts had contained slaves. Now the North was free from the incubus, and among the masses the spirit of aggressive freedom was at work. The Constitution had recognized the duty of each and every State to hand over all fugitive slaves who had escaped to its territory. Many times the rights of the Southern people to such assistance had been denied by the officers of free States. In some of the latter, an "underground railway" was already at work. At the same time, the South was preparing for a vast increase of slave territory represented in the government at Washington. A clause in the joint resolution annexing Texas had provided for the division of the State into four, at the option of Congress and of the State Legislature. The other territory acquired from Mexico was still to be dealt with. Out of all these conditions Henry Clay thought he saw a chance for another of his compromises. He presented in Congress in 1850 his "Omnibus bill." In this, concessions made to Texas, and a

more vigorous fugitive slave law were made to balance the admission of California as a free State. This was supported by Webster, who, on March 10 of the same year, had conceded the duty of every law-abiding citizen, even in a free State, to aid in arresting and returning a fugitive from slavery. While Clay's Omnibus bill was under consideration, President Taylor died (July 9, 1850), and Millard Fillmore succeeded to the Presidency.

Millard Fillmore was a native of Cayuga County, New York, and was born in 1800. His parents were in very humble life, and he had no chance to gain more than the bare rudiments of an education. The poverty of his family early made it necessary for young Fillmore to do something to make a living for himself, and at the age of only fifteen years he was apprenticed to a wool-carder in the neighborhood. But the man's craving for knowledge was so strong, and made itself felt so many ways, that a lawyer named Wood offered to take him in his office at the age of nineteen years, and furnished him with sufficient funds to prosecute his legal studies—an assistance which Fillmore was soon able to supplement by teaching school for a part of the time each year. He soon removed to Buffalo, and was there admitted to the bar in 1823. It was not long before all western New York had recognized the young lawyer's capacity and shrewdness. His practice grew apace, and he made many friends. Six years after his admission, he ran for the State Legislature from the Erie County district and was elected. From this time until the end of his political life Flllmore was a consistent Whig. He made his mark on legislation in the Empire State by pushing a bill to abolish imprisonment for debt, which was at last successfully carried through. Fillmore's connection with National politics began in 1832, the year of nullification agitation, in which he was first elected to Congress. He was a good representative for his district in Washington, as he had been in Albany. Several times he came before the people for re-election, and on each occasion he was successful. In 1847 he was nominated on the Whig ticket for Comptroller of the State, and was elected by so large a majority that when the Whigs desired to strengthen their Presidential ticket one year later, by selecting a New York man for second place, Fillmore was chosen. He made an excellent presiding officer in the Senate, and when called to the Chief Magistracy by the death of his chief acted so as to merit the approval of the voters who had supported him for Vice-President.



Millard Fillmore

His administration had to deal, at its very inception, with the stormy contest raised by the last of Mr. Clay's compromises. The bill was carried through Congress, and, as a Whig measure, was of course signed by the new President. It was a fire-brand. Seward's "higher-law" speech was but the first formulation of a Northern sentiment that stopped little short of defiance. Heretofore, no Northern citizen had been compelled to do more than shut his eyes to the arrest of fugitive slaves. The new law compelled any citizen who should be called upon, to assist a United States marshal in enforcing the United States law. Sumner, the new colleague of Webster in the Senate, from Massachusetts, had declared that "liberty was national, slavery sectional," and had opposed the law with all the powers of his eloquence. He represented the Massachusetts of the present, Webster only the Massachusetts of the past. The disposition to set at naught the new law, extended from Illinois to Maine. Whigs who had voted for it found their constituencies against them. The party was demoralized. Its demolition was at hand. For a time the mantle of Federalism had fallen upon it, but had not been worthily worn. It was to give place

to an organization led by new men, in whose hands the doctrine of Alexander Hamilton was to be used as Hamilton himself would have used it. The Whigs once more tried to awaken popular interest in their organization,—not in their cause, for they had none,—by the nomination of Winfield Scott for President, in 1852. Webster and Clay both died in that year. Scott was beaten. He carried but four States. Again, a Democrat was chosen President of the United States.

CHAPTER XXI.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

1853-1857.

FRANKLIN PIERCE, of New Hampshire, was born in 1804, at Hillsborough, New Hampshire. His father, Gen. Benjamin Pierce, had been a soldier in the Revolutionary war, and a Governor of the State. The son was educated at Bowdoin College, and there made the acquaintance of Nathaniel Hawthorne, afterwards the most distinguished novelist of his time, as well as the biographer of the future President. Pierce studied law after finishing his college course, and was admitted to the bar at an early age. His capacity and energy soon made a place for him among the foremost lawyers of New Hampshire, and in a short time he had acquired a practice that was among the best in the State. He kept a close eye on political events, and was one of the best of organizers on behalf of the Democratic party, with which he had connected himself. At the same time, no minor office in the gift of the party had any temptation for him, and his first entrance into political life was his election to the United States Senate in 1837. He found himself the youngest member of that body, but became in a year or two one of the hardest workers in committee, and therefore one of the most useful members of the Senate. He had apparently no other ambition than to remain there. He refused the Attorney Generalship of the United States when it was offered him by President Polk, but soon afterwards, stirred by the sentiment of national greatness, he enlisted as a private soldier in the force collecting for the Mexican war, and having been made a Brigadier-General displayed the most conspicuous gallantry in the battles of Contreras and Cherubusco.

In the Baltimore Democratic Convention in 1852, Pierce was a conspicuous candidate, and there is little doubt that his military record was what turned the balance in his favor. General Scott, whose military reputation was world-wide and who had won new laurels in the Mexican war, was to be the candidate of the Whig party, now in its decadence, but still numbering within its membership many of the most illustrious names in American statesmanship.



Franklin Pierce

It was not safe for the Democrats to run the risk of any such result as had followed the contest against General Taylor in 1848. Victory was easier than in that year, with almost any candidate, but no one thought it wise to run any risk of putting up a strictly political candidate. So Pierce received the nomination, and his election constituted one more victory for the Democratic organization, perhaps the most significant in its history, and certainly the one which was to have most lasting results on the country's future. President Pierce was known to be an ultra adherent of the States' rights wing of his own party. He had been elected with this understanding, and therefore was at liberty to carry out in full the wishes of the voters who had put him where he was. This he did in a manner at once clever and effective. He did not belong to the noisy school of statesmen. He aimed at results, not at making an impression.

His Cabinet was chosen with a view to making a homogeneous administration. Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, was his Secretary of War. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise was the characteristic development not merely of the President's policy, but of the theories

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on which Calhoun had based his own course, and which was faithfully taught and adhered to by the States' rights men. As before stated in these pages, the existence of slavery in any territory North of 31° 30′ had been expressly forbidden as a part of the Clay Compromise when Missouri's admission as a slave State had been consented to by the North. Now the removal by Congress of that prohibition left the status of each one of the Western Territories in doubt, and seemed to leave a thoroughly legal and constitutional path open to any owner of negroes who might choose to emigrate into any one of these prospective States. It was a radical move, logically following on the last of Mr. Clay's compromises. The Democratic party in Congress began to formulate its ideas on the doctrine of "squatter sovereignty." This meant that even in the status of territorial citizens, people who had settled in the West ought to be allowed to decide the great question of slavery for themselves. It was most earnestly advocated by Mr. Douglas of Illinois, and by the section of his party whom he afterwards represented as a presidential candidate. Douglas was perfectly sincere about the matter, and honestly believed that this policy afforded the best possible solution of a much vexed question. But the North, as a whole, was opposed to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and felt that "squatter sovereignty" was only another entering wedge for the unlimited extension of slave territory. The feeling among Northern immigrants to the Territories was even more bitter than that which existed in the States. Most of the men who had gone out there from the free States had gone with the idea of making homes for themselves by working with their own hands. Anything that had a tendency to degrade manual labor was a mortal offense to them. As a result of this bitterness, violence and bloodshed in Kansas and in other territories marked the latter part of the Pierce administration. Looking at the course of events in "Bleeding Kansas" from a strictly judicial point of view, there can be no doubt that John Brown and a few of his fellow radicals who were given up entirely to the humanitarian hobby, did a great deal to augment the disturbance. They had gone to Kansas with the primary object of making a free State out of that Territory. Improvement of their own material condition was only a secondary object with them, if it can be called an object at all. They went there as agitators, and were met by agitators of the same fondness for violence on the other side. The majority of Northern settlers, however, were in line against slavery for other reasons. Their first object was to get a living, to make themselves

comfortable, and nobody can say how far, if at all, their moral objection to slavery, became a motive to influence their action. At any rate, they were driven into partial or complete sympathy with Brown on the main ground of opposition to the pro-slavery influence, and did what they could to encourage his "underground railway" proceedings, which stood legally on exactly the same footing as the operation of a bank burglar, or of a highway robber. They were carried across the river into Missouri, and of course furnished a pretext for the organization of border troops, which then was not without some basis in justice. In the midst of all this agitation which stirred the whole country up, came the presidential election of 1856, in which for the first time the new Republican party showed itself within the realm of practical politics, and displayed greater strength than anyone had given it credit for. Its candidate was Gen. John C. Fremont, who had really conquered Upper California for the United States during the Mexican war, and who was very popular in the West. Fillmore was running again. The popular vote stood, Buchanan, 1,838,000, Fremont, 1,341,000; Fillmore, 875,000. That a new party in its first presidential campaign, should be able to cast between a million and a million and a half of votes was pretty good evidence of the existence of new conditions. As a matter of fact, the platform of the organization had been drawn up in such a way as to furnish common ground for free-soilers, liberty men, disgruntled Northern Democrats, and disgruntled Northern Whigs, and to hold the temporary support of the abolitionists themselves. Broadly stated, its whole creed was opposition to the extension of slavery in the Territories with an incidental affirming of the power of the National Government to make such extension impossible. But the latter plank of the Republicans brought them back, almost at once, to the ideas of Hamilton and of Washington, with reference to the Constitution's conveying inferential powers to the Federal system. It formed a precedent for all other forms of "loose construction," and fixed upon the party at once full responsibility for the maintenance of Federalism in the modified form which nearly a quarter of a century's experience had rendered necessary. In spite of the new party's phenomenal display of energy, however, Buchanan was elected in 1856, and went in as a "minority" President. President Pierce took no part in politics after his retirement from the White House. He died in 1869.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

1857–1861.

James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, was born in Franklin County, in 1791, and received his degree at Dickinson College in his native State. He studied law, was admitted to the bar, and, at the age of twenty-three years, was elected to the State Legislature. He was a good speaker, a logical thinker, and a man of great tact and judgment. His election to Congress in 1820 was the beginning of a long and brilliant public life. He served in the lower House for eleven years, and then resigned to take the position of Ambassador to Russia under the diplomatic service. For three years he remained at the Court of St. Petersburgh. Then he came back to America and was at once elected to the United States Senate from Pennsylvania. He was re-elected in 1836 and again in 1843. For four years, under President Polk, he was Secretary of State, and in that capacity displayed a remarkable talent for effectively carrying through diplomatic work. In 1854 Mr. Buchanan went to the Court of St. James as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary. He remained there for one year only. His nomination for President in 1856 was a deserved tribute to the worth of a true and tried party servant. His election was rightly looked upon as an indorsement of the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and of the doctrine of "squatter sovereignty." He entered office on March 4, 1857, with a full conviction that questions over which there had been so much and so violent discussion were at least temporarily settled. Two days later the "Dred Scott decision" was announced by the Supreme Court of the United States, and the North was thrown into a state of excitement by the side of which that produced by the Fugitive Slave Law and by the repeal of the Missouri Compromise was as nothing. It would be impossible to leave some account of this decision out of a constitutional history of this period. Dred Scott was a negro who had been owned by Dr. Emerson, of the Regular United States Army. He had been kept for two years in the free State of Illinois, and for two years more in Missouri. When taken back to Missouri Scott claimed his freedom, and the courts of that State, following a long series of decisions, held that he was free. The case had first come up in the



form of a suit for assault and battery, brought by Scott against his master. The latter sold Dred to John F. A. Sandford, of New York, and, after the old suit had been carried to the State Supreme Court, it was taken into the United States courts by the new owner. Going from one court to another it reached the United States Supreme Court, and was argued in December, 1856, but the announcement of the decision was deferred until after a new President had been inaugurated. The decision held that Scott, being a negro, could not be a citizen, and could neither sue nor be sued in either a State or Federal court. Whether he had been rendered free by sojourning in a free State or not was a question over which the court would not assume jurisdiction. But the Chief Justice (Taney) went into a long effort to prove that the Missouri Compromise prohibiting slavery above 36° 30′ N. L. was utterly unconstitutional and void. He held that in regard to slavery in the Territories, "the only power conferred on Congress was the power, coupled with the duty of guarding and protecting the owner in his rights." This phase of the decision was at once denounced by the Republicans as an *ex cathedra* and uncalled-for expression of opinion not logically connected in any way with the

question at issue before the court. It was said to be an unwarrantable attempt to settle a political question by a judicial decision. But in his first utterances as President, Mr. Buchanan had pleaded with the people of the United States to accept this still unannounced decision as a part of the law of the land. He had thus assumed, on behalf of his party, full responsibility for the effect which the decision might produce on the public mind.

The new President constructed his Cabinet on very much the same lines which Pierce had followed. Howell Cobb, of Georgia, afterwards President of the Confederate Congress, was his Secretary of the Treasury. J. B. Floyd, Ex-Governor of Virginia, and afterwards indicted by the Grand Jury of the District of Columbia for grand larceny, was his Secretary of War. But no President of the United States ever had a more scrupulous sense of honor or a more delicate perception of the obligations of honesty than Mr. Buchanan. That he was a sincere patriot even his bitter political enemies are now inclined to concede; and his very anxiety to avoid the horrors of civil war must, in some degree, be held responsible for his selection of a Cabinet. In spite of all his efforts at conciliation the dark clouds of the approaching storm were growing still more formidable every hour In 1858 occurred that memorable series of debates in Illinois between Stephen A. Douglas and Abraham Lincoln in which the latter formulated the cause of the Republican Party more clearly than had been done in thc National Platform two years before, and squarely threw down the gauntlet to the advocates of "squatter sovereignty." In 1859 John Brown, whose performances in Kansas have already been alluded to, appeared upon the scene in a new but characteristic role. With seventeen white men and five blacks he made a raid upon the arsenal at Harper's Ferry, at the junction of the Potomac and Shenandoah rivers in Virginia, containing nearly 200,000 stand of arms ; with the idea of starting a servile insurrection. Some one has rather shrewdly said that if the negroes had been half as anxious to be free as Brown was to free them the raid would have succeeded in its purpose. So far as the objects of his benevolence were concerned, however, the scheme fell flat. Virginia slaves were too well off to care to run their necks into a halter. Brown dallied too long at the arsenal instead of escaping to the mountains. 1500 Virginia militia were speedily raised, the insurrectionary party was captured and its leader was hanged. Despairing of any legal recourse against the growing power of slavery, the Northern public spirit looked with perhaps too much complaisance upon efforts like that of John Brown, and his ex-

ecution was hailed as martyrdom by not only the Abolitionists but many who only half sympathized with them, and evoked a burst of half sympathetic indignation from Bangor to San Francisco. Virginia had had no other course open to her under the circumstances, but the North could not comprehend her fear of another San Domingo, just as she could not understand Northern sympathy with John Brown. For several decades the two sections of the country had continually misunderstood one another. The end of a long and tiresome game of cross purposes was at hand. President Buchanan had nothing to do with the result of long years of ill-concealed hostility between the two. He could not have prevented the war. If his Cabinet officers succeeded in scattering the military forces and the naval forces of the United States, if they sent arms and equipments to Southern arsenals with the intention of having them fall into the hands of the Confederates, they were guilty of a gross breach of trust, but in this President Buchanan has never been implicated. And if the Civil War had ended without the emancipation of the slaves it would have broken out again at some date in the history of America. So it is more than possible that good came out of the work done by Buchanan's Cabinet in strengthening the South. At any rate, speculation on this point is useless now. The war was coming. Buchanan's efforts to avert it were futile, and as a believer in States' rights he could not be reasonably expected to use coercion himself in a specific case, holding, as he did, that all coercion was unconstitutional. The national election of 1860 was a call to arms. From the the time its result was announced there ceased to be any doubt of the intention of the South to proceed to hostilities. The victory of Lincoln, like that of Buchanan himself, was a minority victory. It meant absolute disregard, as was afterwards shown, of the Dred Scott decision by the administration. Mr. Buchanan died in 1868.

CHAPTER XXII.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN—ANDREW JOHNSON.

1861-1869.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, of Illinois, was born in 1810. He grew to manhood amid the scenes of pioneer life in Indiana and Illinois, and had no educational advantages at all. Rail-splitting and farming hardened his hands and gave him a constitution as strong and as flexible as whip-cord, a habit of endurance, the good humor that laughs at hardship, and a love of nature that never deserted him. The only literary works his childish eyes met were the Bible and "Pilgrim's Progress." He had reached the stature of a man, and was employed as a clerk in a dry-goods and grocery store when he began the study of English grammar. It was hard work, but with a dogged

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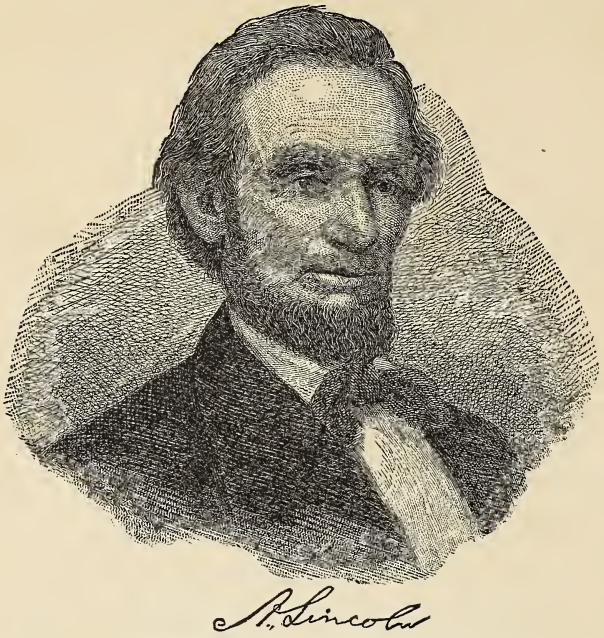
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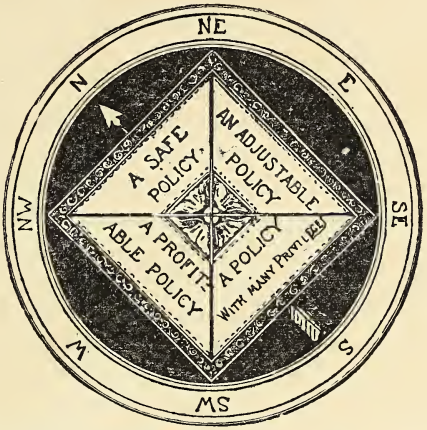
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energy born of his determination to succeed in life the young man persevered. After a brief military experience in the Black Hawk war he studied law, and in course of time was admitted to the bar. He ran for the State Legislature when twenty-three years of age, but was defeated, in spite of personal popularity, because of his Whig politics. After his admission to the bar Mr. Lincoln soon rose to a position of prominence in the community, and in the Whig councils of the State the "Sangamon County Giant" was a well-known figure. In 1846, after several terms in the Legislature, he was elected to Congress. His opposition to the Administration, and his searching analysis of the motives underlying the war policy of President Polk, and the fallacies by which that policy was defended have already been alluded to. At the end of a single term he left the House of Representatives and went back to his law practice, which he pursued energetically in spite of the attention he was forced to pay to politics. His devout admiration for Mr. Clay had already given way to an appreciation of the latter's moral weakness, and his loyalty to the Whig party was more or less tempered by a realization of the fact that the party was a thing of the past. Lincoln was very much stirred up over the Fugitive Slave Law, and again by the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. He felt that the time was coming when statesmen could no longer temporize, and on the organization of the Republican party in 1856 he became one of its foremost orators and staunchest adherents in the West.

In 1860 lines were to be formed on both sides for a great national contest. The Democratic Convention met first at Charleston, and for fifty-seven ballots the Southern men voted for Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, as a Presidential candidate. Douglas was the candidate of the northern Democrats. The convention adjourned to Baltimore, where Douglas was nominated. The Southern men went out by themselves, held a convention at Richmond, and nominated John C. Breckenridge. A Constitutional Union Convention had nominated John Bell, of Tennessee. On the meeting of the Republican Convention at Chicago it soon became evident that the real contest was to be between Seward, of New York, and Lincoln, of Illinois. The former was, undoubtedly, the leader of his party in Congress, and on many grounds was entitled to the nomination. But he had many enemies in his own State, and their opposition could not be overcome. Besides, even at this early date, it had become sufficiently evident that the Mississippi Valley held a controlling influence in the Republican counsels. Lincoln was nominated. He entered upon the hot cam-

paign with the advantage of a divided opposition, and was elected. The popular vote stood : Lincoln, 1,857,610 ; Douglas, 1,365,976 ; Breckenridge, 847,953 ; Bell, 590,631. Lincoln got 180 electoral votes ; Douglas, 12 ; Breckenridge, 72 ; and Bell, 34. Lincoln was inaugurated President on March 4, 1865. On April 12 Fort Sumter was fired on, and the Civil War began in earnest.

With the history of this contest, such a sketch as the present one has nothing to do. Two civilizations were at war. Each failed to comprehend the other. Each was honest and sincere. Each thought itself in the right.

It is, however, with the constitutional development under the presidency of Lincoln that these pages have to deal, and the topic is a pregnant one. The Federal principles of Hamilton were carried into full effect for the first time in the history of the Union. On constitutional interpretation, the Civil War was a great clarifier. The Republicans were forced, as Whigs and Federalists never had been forced—to be consistent. A large number of the States were in rebellion. Not a dollar of Federal revenue could be collected within their borders. Not a United States mail could pass through their territory. Not a Federal court could serve a process upon any of their citizens. In such an emergency, no half-way conception of the national powers would have been of any service. "Loose construction" came to the assistance of President Lincoln and his advisers; and the National Congress, from which the Southern members had withdrawn, was perfectly ready to indorse such construction. With the single exception of the admission of West Virginia to the Union without the consent of Old Virginia's Legislature, Republican logicians contend that nothing was done outside the pale of the Constitution in the course of the efforts of the Lincoln Administration to put down the rebellion. Immense numbers of men were raised by volunteering and drafts. But in each of the draft laws the greatest care was taken to assign to each State its proper quota of the military force to be raised, in order to yield obedience to the technical forms prescribed by fundamental law. To prevent Southern sympathizers from breeding violence in different parts of the North, the privilege of habeas corpus was suspended. Individual assistance was accepted in building up the navy in order to make effective the blockade of the Southern coast line—a blockade which was the longest effective one in history. Tax laws were passed which, for the first time brought the power of the Federal Government's finger into every home. Paper money was issued in tremendous amounts, bonds were

floated into a way and to an extent which nothing but the marvellous resources of the country could have justified. Chase, as Secretary of the Treasury, was as liberal in his construction of the Constitution as Stanton, the Secretary of War. *Pari passu* with the almost unlimited expenditures of money which the war involved, grew up the National Banking system, which most financiers regard as furnishing the very best system of currency known in the world's history. The North was not exhausted, even at the end of the war. Stanton, whose faults of temper made him the most obnoxious official under the Administration to those who doubted the wisdom of the Administration's policy, had executive capacity unequalled by that of any other member of the Cabinet. The draft laws had been enforced with thoroughness and good judgment. At the close of hostilities the Federal Government had about a million men in the field. Its forces which had not been called out amounted to nearly two and a-quarter millions more. Manufacturing and commerce had been "boomed" by the war itself. A homestead law with regard to the public lands had stimulated emigration to the West. The principle of extending the powers of the national government had in large measure enabled Congress to counteract the horrible effects of civil war. The Constitution had shown itself strong enough to meet any possible emergency. The new Federalism was in every way triumphant. In 1864 Lincoln had been elected President again, after a one-sided struggle with McClellan, the hero of Antietam. His popular majority was 411,428, and he got 212 out of the 233 electoral votes cast. He was again inaugurated, and in a little more than a month Richmond had fallen, Lee had surrendered at Appommatox (April 9, 1865), and the war was at an end. Five days after this news had electified the North, Abraham Lincoln, while attending a performance of the Laura Keene Company at Ford's Theatre, was shot by John Wilkes Booth, a young actor, who shrieked, *Sic semper tyrannis!* before he fled through the stage entrance. The assassin's bullet was fatal. Almost simultaneously an unsuccessful attempt had been made to murder Seward, the Secretary of State. He was stabbed several times, but recovered. The death of Lincoln was sincerely mourned, not only by the North, but also by the bravest of the men in the armies of the South, who knew the magnanimity of his spirit, and could partly estimate the value of such an influence at the White House during events which were to come after the surrender.

ANDREW JOHNSON, the seventeenth President of the United States, was born at Raleigh, N. C., in 1808. His parents were poor, and the boy was apprenticed to a tailor at the age of ten years. After serving out his apprenticeship he worked for two years as a journeyman tailor at Laurens Court-House, S. C. Then he went to Tennessee. It appears that his native capacity made a mark for him even here, for in 1840 he was one of the Presidential Electors on the Van Buren ticket, and seems to have taken an active part in politics. Afterwards Mr. Johnson was elected to the State Senate, and in 1843 was sent to Congress. In the lower House he served for ten years, and during the whole of that period was a consistent Democrat. In 1853 he was chosen Governor of the State of Tennessee, and in 1855 was re-elected to the same position. In 1857 he was sent to the Senate, and was in the midst of his time in that body when the war broke out. Together with "Parson" Brownlow, he was active in preventing the attempted secession of the State, and came to be known as one of the most energetic and uncompromising Union men in the border States. He accepted an appointment as military Governor of Tennessee on the occupation of Nashville by the Federal forces in 1862, and in that capacity his work was such as to bring his name to the favorable notice of the people of the North in many ways. Elected as Vice-President, it became his duty to take the oath of office as President of the Republic on the night of April 14, 1865, as soon as possible after the shooting of Mr. Lincoln. For a time, President Johnson displayed the utmost energy in following out the policy of what was called "making treason odious." The almost farcically ended "trial" of Jefferson Davis was a part of this policy. But it was not long before everyone saw that harmony did not exist between the President and his party in Congress. Mr. Johnson had a theory of "reconstruction," which was not accepted as such, either by Congress or by the Northern people. Shorn of all verbiage this theory meant simply to set the State governments running and leave it to the States to settle all questions with reference to the status of the freedmen and the war's ultimate results. Moderate Republicans held that it would be enough to take away from Southern States any representation based on negro population until that population should be voluntarily enfranchised. Radical Republicans, like Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania, were not agreed to this. They advised keeping revolted States in the status of Territories for a term of years by disfranchising those who had borne arms against the country, and refusing to enfranchise the negro until education and the habits of a free life had made him fit to vote. But on



Andrew Johnson

the main question of opposition to the President's policy, all the wings of the dominant party were in harmony. They had more than two-thirds majority in both Houses of Congress, and the veto of President Johnson could be overridden at any time. This was done persistently. The Senate, in particular, was in hostility to the Executive, and the question of recess appointments assumed an importance hitherto unknown. The fight over the removal of Stanton followed. The attempt to remove Lincoln's Secretary of War had been refused sanction by the Senate, and in the face of that refusal Johnson tried to reinstall General Grant in the position. The victor of Appommatox refused to be used in that way. By so doing, he made himself the next candidate for President. The House of Representatives impeached the President for having violated laws passed by Congress over his veto, and in 1868 the trial came off before the Senate. Up to the final vote the result was in doubt. Several Republican Senators would not vote for impeachment. One vote of the requisite majority was lacking, and Mr. Johnson served out his term. The plan of reconstruction finally hit upon was a compromise. Johnson purchased Alaska from Russia—565,862 square miles for $7,200,000. He retired from office in 1869, was re-elected to the United States Senate as a Democrat, in 1875, and died shortly after taking his seat.

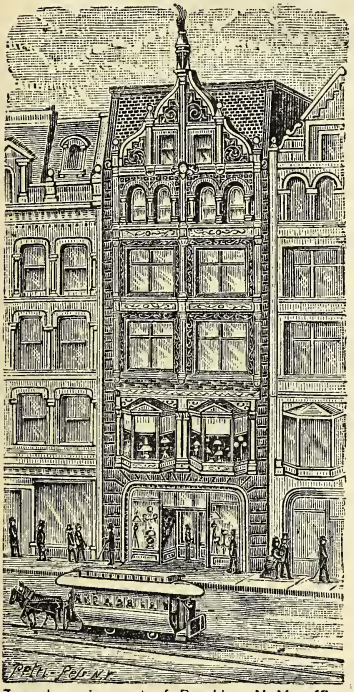
CHAPTER XXIII.

ULYSSES S. GRANT.

1869-1877.

Ulysses S. Grant was born in Point Pleasant, Ohio, in 1822, and graduated at the Military Academy at West Point in 1843. Soon after he had ended his course in that institution the war with Mexico broke out, and the young soldier had a chance to win his spurs. When the war was over he married Miss Julia Dent, the daughter of a St.

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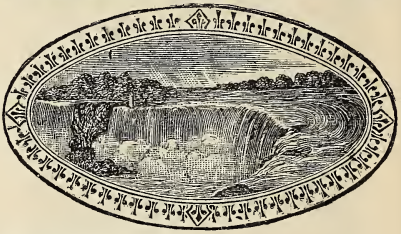
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Louis merchant, and in 1854 resigned his Captaincy to go into farming near St. Louis. It was a life in which he found little pleasure, and a few years later he made arrangements to go into the leather business with his father at Galena, Illinois. He was engaged in this, and was entirely unknown to fame, when the Rebellion began, and President Lincoln's first call for troops was issued in April, 1861. He at once raised a company of volunteers and offered himself to the Adjutant-General of Illinois for any service to which he might be assigned. This offer was not accepted, but Captain Grant went on drilling his company, and soon after was asked by the Governor of the State to take the place of Colonel of the Twenty-first Illinois Infantry, which he accepted. He was afterwards made a Brigadier-General of Volunteers, and put in charge of the Department of Southeast Missouri, with headquarters at Cairo. Without any orders from his superiors, Grant proceeded to seize Paducah (September 6), and broke up the enemy's camp at Belmont. His capture of Fort Donelson, which was the first great victory for the Union arms, brought Grant's name before the public. Like the advance upon Paducah, the assault upon Fort Donelson was without any directions from any one. With 15,000 men he moved upon a fortress defended by 21,000 Confederates, and won the day after a great deal of hard fighting. The indecisive engagement at Corinth with Gen. Beauregard was one out of which Gen. Grant was lucky to escape, even with the loss of 12,000 men. His opponent lost 10,000, and the advantage of position was with the Federal forces. When Halleck was made Commander-in-Chief, Grant succeeded to the Department of the Tennessee, and he at once suggested a move against Vicksburg, and this was partly carried out, but was unsuccessful. The capture of this stronghold was necessary in order that the "father of waters might flow unvexed to the sea." While in the hands of the Confederates, Vicksburg was a continual check on the commerce of all the Mississippi Valley States. It was boasted by Confederate sympathizers in the Northern States that it would never be possible for any human force to take this place—that it was an impregnable stronghold. With all the persistence of which his nature was capable, Gen. Grant set himself to the task of accomplishing what had thus been declared impossible. He succeeded. On July 4, 1863, Gen. Pemberton, with 27,000 prisoners of war, surrendered after a long investment of the place. On March 17, 1864, Grant became Commander-in-Chief of the Union forces, and at once began to force the fighting everywhere. He had some 700,000 men under his command, and planned two campaigns —

one for Gen. Sherman—the famous march through Georgia, and one for himself—the advance on Richmond. Both were completely successful. One was a hurrah march with not much fighting. The other was a steady, continuous, but frightfully bloody crushing out of the Confederacy's life. The battles of the Wilderness were admirably fought on both sides. Gen. Lee was a great strategist; his losses were less than those of his conqueror, and Gen. Grant never hesitated to speak in the highest terms of the generalship of his antagonist. The end had to come. Richmond's fall set the North wild with enthusiasm, and Appommatox capped the climax. The name of Grant was upon every lip. He fixed his headquarters at Washington, and by request of President Johnson, in 1867 became *ad interim* Secretary of War. He held this place from August 12, 1867, to January 14, 1868. His refusal to remain after the Senate had taken positive action against Stanton's removal has been noted. The nomination of Gen. Grant for President of the United States in the summer of the same year was a matter of course.

His election was assured from the beginning of the campaign. He entered office on March 4, 1869, and found enough work before him in carrying out the policy of reconstruction which had been decided upon by Congress, and which had been blocked by the recalcitrancy of Andrew Johnson. The plan was rapidly carried through, now that the Executive and Legislative branches of the Government were at last in harmony. From the standpoint of the Republicans, it did not turn out a complete success. One by one the high spirit, perfect organization, virility, and determination of the Southern whites reclaimed their States from the rule of ignorant negroes. General Grant went to the full limit of his powers under the Constitution in sustaining the "Reconstruction" State Government, but at last saw that all his efforts would be unavailing. He was renominated in 1872, and in spite of a revolt from the Republican party, in which such men as Charles Sumner, of Massachuttes, Ex-Governor Curtin, of Pennsylvania, Reuben E. Fenton, of New York, and Horace Greeley, were leaders, was re-elected by the largest majority, popular and electoral, that any President had ever received. It was a triumph worthy of the great General. But the process of counter-reconstruction at the South was going on all the time. At the end of Grant's second term, there was serious doubt about the result of the National election.

General Grant retired from the Presidency in 1877. He died at the Drexel Cottage, at Mount MacGregor, on July 23, 1885.

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES
1877-1881.

Rutherford B. Hayes was born in 1822, at Delaware, Ohio. He graduated from Kenyon College and from the Harvard Law School, and in 1845 opened the practice of law in the town of Sandusky in his native State. He did not meet with great success there, but as he had many friends in the metropolis of Ohio, he decided to move to Cincinnati (1850), and there built up a very good practice. In 1859 he was elected city solicitor, and when the war broke out was among the first to enlist. He was first made Major, and then Lieutenant-Colonel of the 23rd Ohio Infantry. His command was engaged in the campaigns of Western Virginia, and he was in several engagements around Winchester. At South Mountain Colonel Hayes was very severely wounded. His brave conduct on the battle-field won for him a brevet as Brigadier-General in 1864, and one year later as Major-General. From 1867 to 1875 he was Governor of Ohio. When the Republican National Convention met in Cincinnati in 1876, "Blaine against the field" was very even betting. The field won with Gov. Hayes as its candidate.

The Democrats had put up as their candidate the greatest statesman in their organization—a man whose power of logical thought, and whose capacity as a man of affairs was as great as his eloquence, and who was, perhaps, a closer follower, a more devoted disciple of Jefferson than any other Democrat, except Samuel J. Randall, the Congressional Colossus, with whom he was in perfect accord. On the popular vote Tilden was easily the victor. He had 184 electoral votes uncontested. 185 was a majority. In addition, his electoral ticket had polled more votes than that of Hayes in Louisiana, in Florida, and in South Carolina. This was conceded. But in those States peculiar conditions prevailed. Their laws provided for political returning boards consisting of State officials. These boards had the legal right to throw out returns from any district where, in their opinion, violence or intimidation had affected the result. They exercised it. A majority for the Hayes electors in each of these States was returned in this way, and certificates were given to them. The Tilden electors in each case made a contest. The Electoral Commission on contested certificates was then made up of three Democrats and two Republicans from the House, two Democrats and three Republicans from the Senate,



two justices of the Supreme Court of known Democratic leanings, two of known Republican leanings, and one to be chosen by the other four. It was believed that David Davis, of Illinois, who was as likely to vote on the Democratic side as on the Republican, would have the fifteenth place on the ground of seniority. But the Republican managers knew that Davis was ambitious to enter political life, that he was tired of the judicial ermine, and they arranged it to have him elected United States Senator from the State of Illinois, while the organization of the Commission was still pending. This took him out of the way, and on the same ground of seniority, Joseph P. Bradley, of New Jersey, was made the fifteenth member of the Commission. The vote was eight to seven on every question submitted. Hayes was inaugurated, and devoted himself to an effort to divide the South by trying to stir up the "old-line Whigs" into joining the Republican party. This attempt was not startlingly successful. In the next National election, for almost the first time in our history, all the States south of Mason and Dixon's line voted for the same Presidential candidate—the candidate of the Democratic party. The tariff issue, however, had made the North almost equally solid, and General Garfield was elected President.

JAMES A. GARFIELD—CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

1881—1885.

James A. Garfield was a native of Cuyahoga County, Ohio, and was born in 1831. Like Lincoln, he had to meet the most discouraging conditions as a boy, and it was only by the exertion of an immense amount of energy and self-denial that he succeeded in securing what was looked upon in the Western Reserve as the greatest possible boon to a young man—a college education. He graduated at Williams College, Massachusetts, in 1856, and, having studied law, was admitted to the bar in his native State. Elected to the Ohio Senate in 1859, he had hardly served out his time when the war began, and he took the field at once as Colonel of the Forty-Second Ohio Volunteers. In 1862, he was promoted to the position of Brigadier-General of Volunteers for gallantry. He did his full duty as a soldier at Shiloh, and at Corinth, and in 1863 became chief of staff to Gen. Rosecrans. At Chickamauga, he greatly distinguished himself, and was rewarded with a Major-Generalship. He resigned to take a seat in the Thirty-Eighth Congress, to which he had been chosen by his neighbors in Ohio. In 1880 he was elected to the Senate by the Legislature of Ohio. Then the Republican National Convention met in Chicago, and Gen. Garfield was nominated. The Democrats put up Gen. Hancock, whose record as a soldier was unimpeachable, but whose familiarity with public life was very slight. Manufacturing interests could not trust him as they had trusted Tilden. The Republican party in New York was better organized than ever before. Garfield was elected. He made Mr. Blaine Secretary of State, set out upon the pursuance of a vigorous foreign policy, and at once made war upon the dominant wing of his own policy in the Empire State, in the interest of Mr. Blaine's supporters there. Gen. Merritt, Collector of the Port of New York, was removed to make room for Judge Wm. H. Robertson, of Westchester County, who had headed the bolt against the "unit rule" in the Republican Convention. President Garfield was shot July 2, 1881, by Guiteau, an addle-headed office-seeker, in the Pennsylvania Railroad depot at Washington, and while he was hanging between life and death, popular sympathy was deeply touched. General Garfield at the same time

was displaying a fortitude and patience under physical suffering which evoked the applause of people in every civilized nation the world over. His constitution was superb, to begin with, and he had never enervated it in any way. In every part of the United States prayers were being offered up for his recovery. No event of a personal nature had ever so agitated the popular heart as the shooting of Garfield, and the doubt as to the result kept up the agitation. That the shooting had no other end than to gratify Guiteau's personal pique at his failure to get office, is evident from the evidence brought out at his trial. But brave endurance of the agony of such an incurable wound made Garfield a martyr in the eyes of the public. His death on September 19, 1881, cost more heartfelt tears in a larger number of households than that of any other name in the world's history. In his illness he had proved that American manhood yields no palm to the memory of a Bayard, and that in this Chief Magistrate the people had chosen one who was the very flower of native chivalry.

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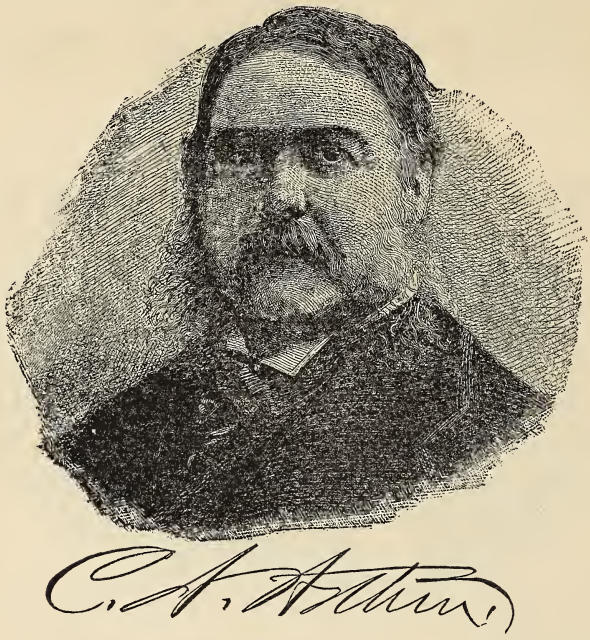
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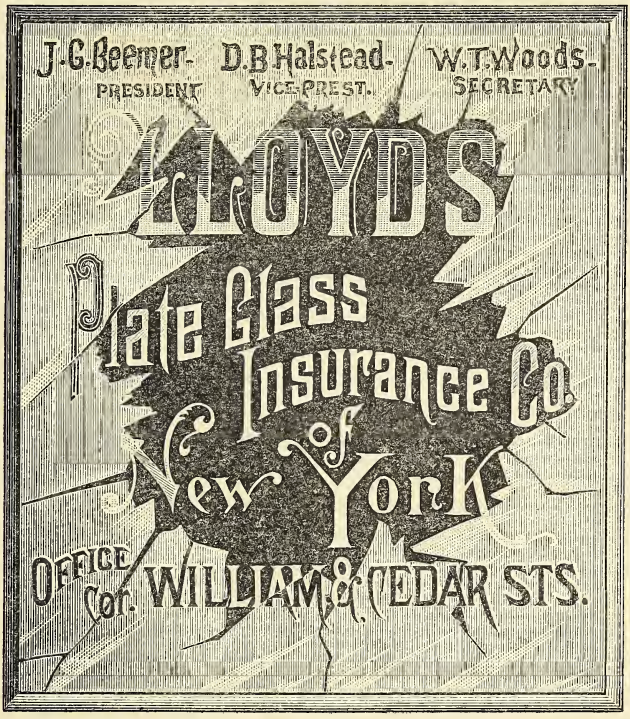
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Chester A. Arthur, who succeeded to the Presidency on the death of Gen. Garfield, was a native of Vermont. He was born in Franklin County, of that State, in 1830, and was the son of William A. Arthur, a Baptist clergyman, who successively held several pastoral charges in Vermont and in Eastern New York. He graduated at Union College in 1849; and, having studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1852. At the outbreak of the Civil War E. D. Morgan was Governor of the State of New York. He appointed Chester A. Arthur, then only thirty-one years of age, to the important —and just at that period most responsible—position of Inspector-General of the N.G.S.N.Y. In 1871 Gen. Arthur, who had always been energetic in the service of his party, was made Collector of the Port by President Grant. In that capacity he was firm, inexorable when the public interest demanded it, but took no malign delight in making the collection of the customs as odious as possible to those who had to pay the import duties. In 1880, the Republican party in its National Convention had a chance to voice its wishes, and named Gen. Arthur for the Vice-Presidency. New York voted for Garfield and Arthur. They won. Arthur became President in the midst of profound sorrow over Garfield's death, and acted in such a way as to win the applause of even his enemies. His course in domestic affairs was suggested by a profound knowledge of what commercial interests demanded. His foreign policy was at the same time firm and conservative. Toward the end of his term, when his successor was to be chosen, he had an opportunity to prove the unselfishness of the views he had always held as to the political freedom of all public servants. He had resisted coercion by President Hayes when he was himself in the customs service. A National Convention was coming on, and the temptation to coerce others was a strong one. Gen. Arthur resisted it. To all his friends in different States he wrote: "The power of patronage shall not be used in my behalf. Every officer must be free to take what personal action he chooses in his State and district." Promises of office and threats of removal were left to the President's opponents. He would not soil his hands with them. In many cases those who held office under him actually used their subordinate authority against him. He would not interfere. Arthur was not renominated. The State of New York and the nation were lost to the Republican party. Gen. Arthur again took up his law practice in New York City, but found his health sadly impaired. He died on November 18, 1886.

GROVER CLEVELAND.

1885-1889.

GROVER CLEVELAND, the twenty-second President of the United States, is a native of Caldwell, Essex Co., New Jersey. He was born in 1837, and was the son of Richard F. Cleveland, who afterwards removed from the State of New Jersey to New York, and died at what is now known as the Cleveland Homestead at Holland Patent, in the latter State. The future President was largely educated by his father. In 1855 he concluded to set out for the West, with the idea of studying law at Cleveland, Ohio. But while passing through Buffalo, he met his uncle, William F. Allen, who persuaded him to stay there and pursue his legal studies in his own office. In 1859 he was admitted to the bar. He made many friends, and displayed considerable ability in his profession, and in 1863 was made Assistant District-Attorney of Erie County, a position which he held for three years. During this time it appears that Mr. Cleveland made himself thoroughly familiar with the practical politics of his county. In 1870 he was chosen Sheriff of Erie County, after a hot fight, and in this office did good service to the people of the county. In 1881 he was chosen Mayor of Buffalo, on a "Reform" ticket. He succeeded in cutting down the expense of the City government. One year later, the Democratic party nominated Cleveland as candidate for Governor. Their candidate was elected by 192,000 majority over an estimable and universally respected Republican candidate, and by virtue of that fact was at once placed foremost in the list of aspirants for the Democratic Presidential nomination in 1884.

The Democratic National Convention met, and there were two candidates from New York Roswell P. Flower, of this city, and Governor Cleveland. The latter had a majority of the State delegates, and, by virtue of the unit rule, cast them all. He was nominated. Then came one of the most bitter and doubtful contests of which the history of American politics bears any record. The Republican party had nominated James G. Blaine. Cleveland was elected, and inaugurated on March 4, 1885. His course in office was honest, fearless, and meant to be patriotic. But on behalf of the followers of Jefferson he threw down the gauntlet of battle to the New Federalists on the question of tariff legislation, and, on his renomination in 1888, President Cleveland was not re-elected. He is at present practicing law in New York city.



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BENJAMIN HARRISON.

INAUGURATED MARCH 4, 1889.

Benjamin Harrison, the twenty-third President of the United States, is a grandson of William H. Harrison, the hero of the Log Cabin and Hard Cider campaign of 1840. He was born at North Bend, on the Miami River, in Ohio, in 1833. He graduated at the Miami University in 1852, and two years later took up the practice of law in the city of Indianapolis. He was elected Reporter of the Indiana Supreme Court in 1860; but when the war broke out, went into the Union army as Colonel of the Seventieth Indiana Volunteers, a regiment which he had himself raised. He joined Rosecranz at Murfreesboro'. Afterward Col. Harrison marched through Georgia with Gen. Sherman. He did some hard fighting at Resaca, Kulp's Hill and Peach Tree Creek. His defence of Nashville against the Confederate General Hood, won for him the commendation of his superiors. He rejoined Sherman in North Carolina, early in 1865, and was brevetted a Brigadier-General on March 22 of the same year. On June 8, 1865, Gen. Harrison was mustered out of the service. He went back to his law practice at Indianapolis, and in 1876 was nominated by the Republican party for Governor of the State. He made a hard fight, but was at last beaten because of the popularity of his opponent, "Blue Jeans" Williams, with the common people. In 1880 Gen. Harrison was elected by the Legislature as United States Senator, and until 1885 he represented his State in the upper branch of the National Legislature. He was then beaten in a fight for re-election.

In 1888 the Republican National Convention met at Chicago, and a pretty large majority of the delegates were probably in favor of a second nomination of Mr. Blaine. But the great leader was in Europe. He had repeatedly said that he would make no contest for a nomination, and his supporters did not dare to subject the party to the risk of putting him up and then having him decline the honor. They would have been glad to secure his unanimous nomination; and it is understood that at one time all of the prominent candidates had been induced to withdraw, in order to allow of such an outcome of events. But Senator Sherman, of Ohio, blocked the arrangement in the long run, and was able to hold the whole

of the Ohio delegation in line for himself, in spite of the wish of many of the delegates to vote for Mr. Blaine. The New York delegation had voted solidly for Chauncey M. Depew, and the Indiana delegation, with one or two exceptions, had stood as solidly for Mr. Harrison. Judge Walter Q. Gresham, another Indiana man, was being pushed by the Illinois delegates. His friends urged that he could hold the votes of the workingmen, because in one or two cases his decisions on the bench had borne very severely against railroad corporations in cases arising out of labor disputes.

In this critical situation the New York men decided the result. They reasoned that Harrison could in all probability carry their State on the tariff issue as against Mr. Cleveland, and that he was sure to carry his own State, which, with New York, and the sure Republican States, would remove doubt about the general result. They swung New York to Harrison and nominated him. Then, in return for their support, they secured for Levi P. Morton, of their own State, the nomination for Vice-President. The ticket, as constituted, was one upon which the long-divided Republicans of New York State could unite. Senator Matthew S. Quay, of Pennsylvania, was put at the head of the National Campaign, the country was flooded with literature showing the alleged advantages of a protective tariff, and the final battle was won. President Harrison was inaugurated on March 4, 1889. He made Mr. Blaine his Secretary of State, William Windom Secretary of the Treasury, John W. Noble Secretary of the Interior, Benjamin F. Tracy Secretary of the Navy, Redfield Proctor Secretary of War, W. H. H. Miller, Attorney-General, John Wanamaker Postmaster-General, and James A. Rusk Secretary of Agriculture.

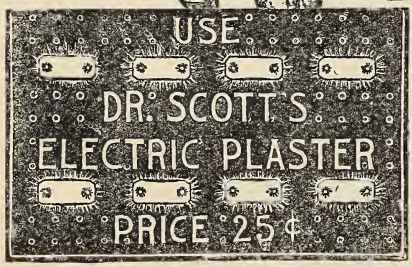


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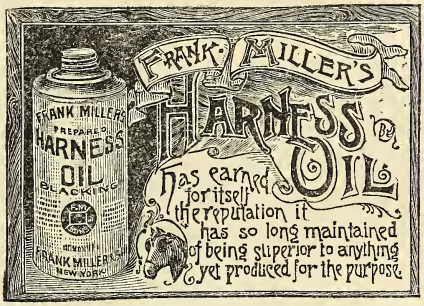
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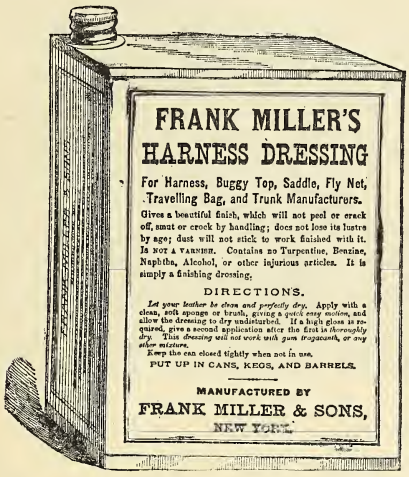
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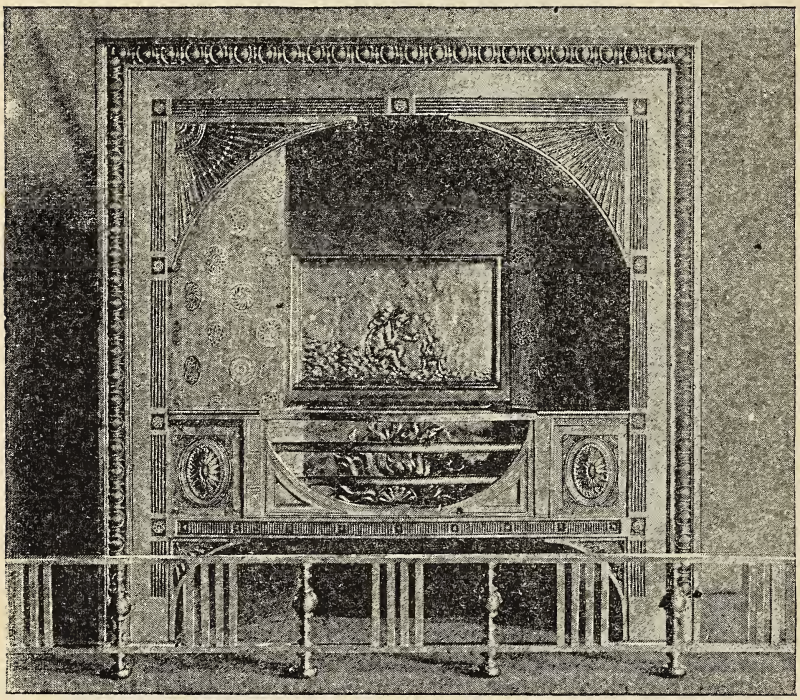
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CHAPTER XXV.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN 1789—OUR FIRST NATIONAL ELECTION.

The history of Washington's inauguration as First President of the United States, the most significant event in American history, not even excepting the signing of the Declaration of Independence, begins naturally with an account of the first national election under the new system. Not only was a President to be chosen, but a Senate and a House of Representatives. Individual ambitions were excited by the contest for greater and lesser places under the Constitution. Individual animosities were satisfied in settling these contests. General popular interest made itself felt with regard to the choice of Senators and Representatives as well as Presidential electors. The plan of government was not fully understood, in spite of the efforts of several distinguished pamphleteers. The first national election was as novel as it was significant.

"The first Wednesday in January, 1789, arrived, and electors were chosen in all of the ratifying States save New York. In that great commonwealth the choice was to be made by the Legislature, and the Legislature was divided against itself. The Assembly was in the hands of the Clinton men, and strongly Anti-federal. The Senate was in the hands of the friends of Hamilton, and was by a small majority Federal. The bill which the Assembly framed provided that the Senate and Assembly, having each nominated eight electors, should meet and compare lists, that men whose names were in both lists should be considered elected, and that from those whose names were not in both lists one-half of the needed number should be chosen by each branch of the Legislature. The Senate amended the bill by proposing that the two branches of the Legislature should not meet, but should exchange lists, and that, if the lists differed, each branch should propose names to the other for concurrence, and should go on doing so till all the electors were chosen. The Assembly promptly rejected the amendment; a conference followed; the Senate stood firm, and no electors were chosen. New York, therefore, cast no vote in the first Presidential election, and had no representative on the floor of the Senate during the first session of the first Congress under the Constitution.

"Very similar was the quarrel that took place in New Hampshire.

There the law gave the people the right of nominating, and the Legislature the power of appointing, but was silent as to the way in which the appointment should be made. The Assembly was for a joint ballot. This the Senate would not hear of, and stood out for a negative on the action of the Assembly as complete and final as in the cases of resolutions and bills ; a wrangle followed, and midnight of the 7th of January was close at hand when the Assembly gave way, made an angry protest, and chose electors, each one of whom was a Federalist. In Massachusetts the General Court chose two electors at large, and eight more from a list of sixteen names sent up from the eight Congressional districts. In Pennsylvania the choice was by direct vote of the people, and the counties beyond the mountains being strongly Anti-federal, two general tickets were promptly in the field. On the Lancaster ticket were the names of ten Federalists well known to be firm supporters of Washington. On the Harrisburg ticket were the names of men who had signed the address and reasons of dissent of the minority of the Pennsylvania convention, had been members of the Anti-federal societies and committees of correspondence, had labored hard to defeat the Constitution, and, even after nine States had ratified, had sat in the famous Harrisburg Convention which petitioned the Legislature to ask to have the Constitution sent for amendment to a new convention of the States. These men, the Federalists declared, were planning to make Patrick Henry President, and though some were given a great vote, not one secured election.

"In Maryland, where the choice was also made by the people, the excitement became intense, for the lines which parted the Federalists and Anti-federalists were precisely those which a few years before parted the non-imposters and the paper-money men from the men who wished for honest money and the prompt payment of the Continental debt. All over the State meetings were held, addresses were issued, and each party accused of fraud. But when the votes were counted, the Federalists were found to have carried the day. Virginia likewise left the choice with the people, and in that State some fights took place and some heads were broken. But these were of common occurrence, often happened when members of the House of Burgesses were elected, and were thought nothing of. In Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, South Carolina, and Georgia, the electors were chosen by the Legislatures of the States. In Rhode Island and North Carolina no elections were held ; they had not accepted the Constitution, and were not members of the new Union.

"Of the sixty-nine electors thus appointed not six were formally pledged to the support of any man. In Baltimore and Philadelphia, where the contest was close, a few had been charged with Anti-federalist leanings, and had issued cards declaring that if elected they would cast their votes for Washington and Adams. But the others gave no pledges, and none were wanted. Differ as men might touching the merits of the Constitution, there was no difference of opinion touching the man who should fill the highest office under the Constitution, and voters and electors alike united on General Washington.

"There all unanimity ceased, for no other name was a charmed name with Americans. That of Franklin stood high, but Franklin had passed his eightieth year, was sorely afflicted with an incurable disease, and was justly thought too old and feeble for the second place. The services and claims of Samuel Adams were almost as great; but he had begun by opposing the Constitution, had ended by accepting it with much reluctance, and was accordingly passed over by the Federalists, who brought forward the name of John Adams in his stead." Adams' aristocratic ideas were used against him. George Clinton, of New York, was warmly supported. His friends said: "His name is now written at the foot of the Declaration of Inde-

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pendence; he has never sat in Congress, nor gone on a mission to foreign parts to caper before dukes and princes, and dance attendance in the ante-chambers of kings; he has no theory about the place to be given to the rich and well-born in the state; but he is a stanch republican, a friend to the liberty of the press, an enemy of standing armies, a hater of consolidated governments in every form, a man in whose hands the interests of six States proposing amendments will be safe." So eager were his friends to see him Vice-President that they formed clubs, took the name of Federal-Republican, and, while electors were yet to be chosen, canvassed, corresponded, and sent out a circular letter in his behalf. For a time his chances of success were good; but when it was known that Clinton could not carry his own State, that New York had chosen no electors, all hope of success was given up. And well it might be, for when the electors met on the first Wednesday in February, Clinton got but three votes, and these three were cast by Virginia. Washington, on that day, was given sixty-nine; John Adams received thirty-four. Thirty-five more votes were thrown away on ten men, no one of whom received more than nine.

That a vote or two should be thrown away was necessary. As the Constitution then read, it was the duty of each elector to write down on his ballot the names of two men, without indicating which he wished should be President. The man receiving the greatest number of electoral votes was to be President, and the man receiving the next highest, was to be Vice-President. Had every elector who voted for Washington also voted for Adams, neither would have been elected, and the choice of a President would have devolved on the House of Representatives. So great a scattering, however, was unnecessary, and is to be ascribed to a fear that Washington would not be given the vote of every elector—a fear Alexander Hamilton did all he could to spread.

The choice of Representatives was left to the people. By the Constitution, any man who could vote for a member of the lower branch of his State Legislature could vote for a member of Congress. But not every man could on election day write a ballot and bring it to the polls or stand in the crowd that shouted "aye" when the name of his candidate was called. Suffrage was far from universal. The elective franchise belonged to the rich and well-to-do, not to the poor. The voter must own land or property, rent a house, or pay taxes of some sort. Here the qualification was fifty acres of land, or personal property to the value of thirty pounds; there it was a white skin and property to the value of ten pounds. In one State it was a poll-tax; in another, a property-tax; in another, the voter must be a

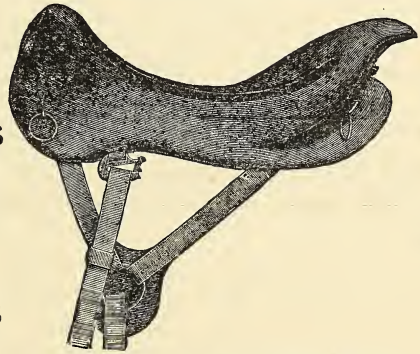
quiet and peaceable man with a freehold worth forty shillings, or personal estate worth forty pounds. To vote in South Carolina, a free white man must believe in the being of a God, in a future state of reward and punishment, and have a freehold of fifty acres of land; to vote in New York, he must be seized of a freehold worth twenty pounds York money, or pay a house-rent of forty shillings a year, have his name on the list of tax-payers, and in his pocket a tax receipt.

The effect of restrictions such as these was to deprive great numbers of deserving men of the right to vote. Young men just starting in life, sons of farmers whose lands and goods had not been divided, wandering teachers of schools, doctors and lawyers beginning the practice of their profession, might count themselves fortunate if at the age of twenty-eight they could comply with the conditions imposed by the constitutions of many of the States. Of the mass of unskilled laborers,—the men who dug ditches, carried loads, or in harvest-time helped the farmer gather in his hay and grain,—it is safe to say that very few, if any, ever, in the course of their lives cast a vote, for they were thought well paid if given food, lodging, and $60 a year.

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New Hampshire	5	5										
Massachusetts	10	10										
Connecticut	7	5	2									
New Jersey	6	1			5							
Pennsylvania	10	8		2								
Delaware	3				3							
Maryland	6						6					
Virginia	10	5		1	1	3						
South Carolina	7			1				6				
Georgia	5								2	1	1	1
Total	69	34	2	4	9	3	6	6	2	1	1	1

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The twelfth Senator necessary to make a quorum did not reach New York until April 5, 1789.

The House of Representatives meanwhile had been more fortunate—had secured a quorum, had chosen a Speaker, and was hard at work on a tariff act, when a messenger from the Senate knocked at the door and informed the Speaker that the Senate was ready to count the electoral vote.

This duty done, the Houses parted, and Charles Thomson was sent to carry a certificate of election to Washington, while Sylvanus Bourne went on a like errand to John Adams, at Braintree. The journey of these two men from their homes to the seat of Congress was one long ovation. Adams set out first, and was accompanied from town to town along the route by troops of soldiers and long lines of men on horseback, was presented with addresses, was met at Kingsbridge by members of Congress, and the chief citizens of New York, and escorted with every manifestation of respect to the house of John Jay. His inauguration took place on April 22d, and was attended by one incident, unnoticed at the time, but serious in its consequences. In the crowd that stood about the doors of Federal Hall to catch a glimpse of Mr. Adams as he went in, were John Randolph, of Roanoke, and his elder brother Richard. The lads were students at Columbia College, and, pressing too close to the Vice-President's carriage, Richard, in the language of his brother, "was spurned by the coachman." In a healthy-minded lad the wrath which the "spurning" called forth would surely have gone down with the sun. But John Randolph was far from healthy-minded. To him the act was past all forgiveness, and to the last day of his life he hated, with a fierce, irrational hatred, not the coachman, but John Adams himself.

That Washington was not anxious to return to public life, that in fact he was averse to doing so, is shown by his correspondence conclusively. It may be inferred also from his previous withdrawal.

Desiring to resign his commission as Commander-in-Chief of the army, he addressed a letter to the President of Congress requesting to know what manner would be most proper in which to tender his resignation, whether by written communication or personal address. He was assured that the latter mode would be the more acceptable, and it was appointed that Washington should appear in the hall of Congress, at Annapolis, on December 23, 1783, and there express his intentions to the members assembled. In a letter to Baron Steuben, he says: "This is the last letter I shall write while I continue in the

service of my country. The hour of my resignation is fixed at twelve to-day, after which I shall become a private citizen on the banks of the Potomac."

The hall of Congress was crowded at the appointed hour with ladies, and with State and general officers. The Secretary of Congress conducted Washington to his chair, and then the President (General Mifflin) informed him that "the United States, in Congress assembled, were prepared to receive his communications." Washington's address was filled with that stately and sympathetic style of rhetoric which was invariable in all his public utterances, and, if we are to believe a writer who was present, "few tragedies ever drew so many tears from so many beautiful eyes as the moving manner in which His Excellency took his final leave of Congress." The closing phrases of this address were: "I consider it an indispensable duty to close this last solemn act of my official life by commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, and those that have the superintendence of them to his holy keeping. Having now finished the work assigned me, I retire from the great theatre of action, and bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body, under whose orders I have long acted, I here offer my commission and take my leave of all the employments of public life."

"You retire," replied the President of Congress, "from the theatre of action with the blessings of your fellow citizens. But the glory of your virtues will not terminate with your military command; it will continue to animate remotest ages."

The next day Washington hurried to Mount Vernon to join with his family in the festivities of Christmas Eve.

Charles Thomson was a native of Ireland, a school-teacher in Philadelphia, a friend of Benjamin Franklin, and was now living the fifty-ninth of his ninety-four years. In 1774, when he was elected Secretary of the Continental Congress,—which office he held for fifteen consecutive years,—he had just married a young woman of fortune, who was the aunt of President William Henry Harrison and the great-great aunt of President Benjamin Harrison. He left New York Tuesday morning, April 7, and on Thursday evening he was in Philadelphia. Friday morning he continued his journey, passing through Wilmington the same day and reaching Baltimore on Sunday evening. Monday morning, April 13, he left Baltimore and arrived at Mount Vernon at half-past twelve o'clock Tuesday afternoon, being more than a week in making the journey from New York.

After Mr. Thomson had presented to the President-elect the certificate of election which the President of the Senate had given him and had made a formal address stating the purpose of his visit, Washington at once replied, accepting the appointment, and said :

" I am so much affected by this fresh proof of my country's esteem and confidence that silence can best explain my gratitude. While I realize the arduous nature of the task which is imposed upon me and feel my own inability to perform it, I wish that there may not be reason for regretting the choice; for indeed all I can promise is only to accomplish that which can be done by an honest zeal.

"Upon considering how long time some of the gentlemen of both Houses of Congress have been at New York, how anxiously desirous they must be to proceed to business, and how deeply the public mind appears to be impressed with the necessity of doing it speedily, I cannot find myself at liberty to delay my journey. I shall, therefore, be in readiness to set out the day after to-morrow, and shall be happy in the pleasure of your company ; for you will permit me to say that it is a peculiar gratification to have received this communication from you."

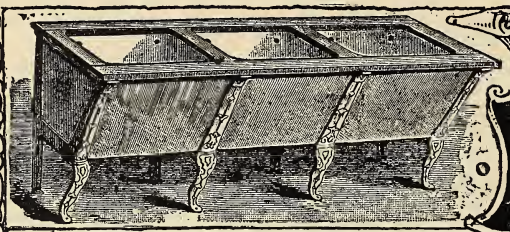
Washington at once began to make preparations for departure from Mount Vernon.

CHAPTER XXVI.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN 1789—HIS TRIP TO NEW YORK.

It is not easy to understand all the annoyances occasioned by a trip from Mount Vernon to New York in 1789. The scoffer and complainer at our own means of locomotion at the present time must blush when he reads of the general lack of transit methods in and out of New York just a hundred years ago. We are informed that the mails were sent three times a week in the summer and twice a week in the winter to Philadelphia and Boston. "The Boston, Albany and Philadelphia Stage Office" was in Cortlandt street, and stages for Boston started every Monday, Wednesday and Friday; for Albany, every Monday and Thursday; and for Philadelphia, from Paulus Hook, N. J., twice a day, except Saturdays and Sundays, when they left but once a day.

The Rev. Jeremy Belknap, of New Hampshire, had a trip from Dover to Philadelphia that he might well reflect upon with excitement were he living to-day. We get our first glimpse of Mr. Belknap in the stage-coach going from Boston to Providence. Leaving Boston on Thursday morning, he entertained reasonable hopes of reaching Providence before night, but the illness of a lady passenger compelled them to remain over at Hatch's Tavern, in Attleborough. He sailed in a packet for Newport on the following Tuesday, which town he appears to have reached in due time, only to be detained there by squally weather till Friday. In a letter written to Mrs. Belknap in Dover, the worthy reverend informs us that "before leaving the harbor the wind came ahead, and we beat to windward, a species of sailing I never before was acquainted with, and never wish to be again. It made me downright sea-sick." Finding it impossible to weather Point Judith, Mr Belknap in his packet returned to Newport, whence he sailed away again the next morning, with seven passengers and a fair wind, having "a very pleasant passage up the Sound in a very swift-sailing sloop, with every desirable accommodation for eating, drinking and sleeping." After four days of great enjoyment in New York, Mr. Belknap pursued his way to Philadelphia, taking passage



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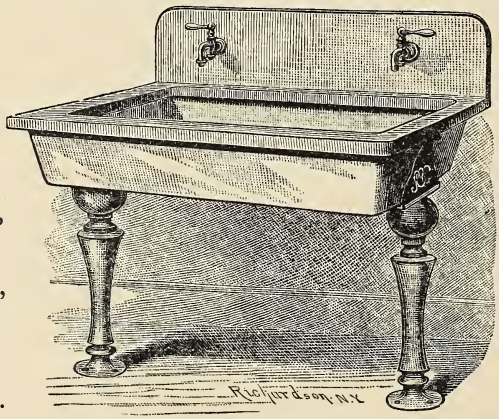
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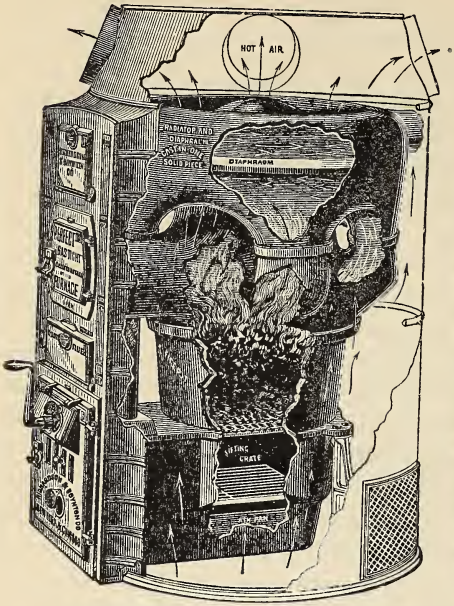
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in the "New Flying Diligence." He left Paulus Hook at three in the morning, and, after crossing various streams on scows, arrived in Philadelphia at sunset.

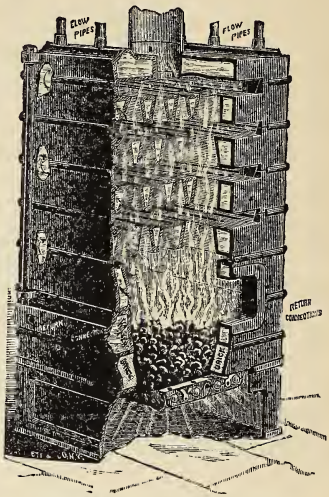
It is further related that a gentleman of Wilmington, Del., who was required to journey to New York with some frequency, was looked upon as a great traveller, and whenever he returned home from a visit the village people crowded about him to hear the marvellous story of his trip.

Washington took his departure from home on the 16th of April. But he had not gone a mile from his door when a crowd of friends and neighbors on horseback surrounded his carriage, and rode with him to Alexandria. There the Mayor addressed him, in the fulsome manner of the time, as the first and best of citizeus, as the model of youth, as the ornament of old age, and went with him to the banks of the Potomac where the men of Georgetown were waiting. With them he went on till the men of Baltimore met him, and led him through lines of shouting people to the best inn their city could boast. That night a public reception and a supper were given in his honor, and at sunrise the next morning he was on his way towards Philadelphia.

In size, in wealth, in population, Philadelphia then stood first among the cities of the country, and her citizens determined to receive their illustrious President in a manner worthy of her greatness and of his fame. The place selected was Gray's Ferry, where the road from Baltimore crossed the lower Schuylkill—a place well-known and often described by travellers. On the high ridge that bordered the eastern bank was Gray's Inn and gardens, renowned for the greenhouse filled with tropical fruit, the maze of walks, the grottoes, the hermitages, the Chinese bridges, the dells and groves, that made it "a prodigy of art and nature." Crossing the river was the floating bridge, made gay for the occasion with flags and bunting and festoons of cedar and laurel leaves. Along the north rail were eleven flags, typical of the eleven States of the new Union. On the south rail were two flags; one to represent the new era; the other, the State of Pennsylvania. Across the bridge at either end was a triumphal arch, from one of which a laurel crown hung by a string which passed to the hands of a boy who, dressed in white and decked with laurel, stood beneath a pine-tree hard by. On every side were banners adorned with emblems and inscribed with mottoes. One bore the words, "May commerce flourish!" On another was a sun, and under it, "Behold the rising empire." A third was the rattlesnake flag, with the threatening words, "Don't tread on *me*." On the hill overlooking the

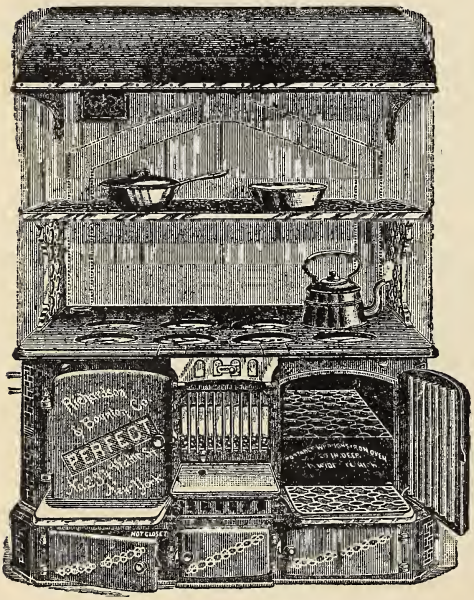


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bridge and the river was a signal to give the people warning of the President's approach.

Toward noon on the 20th of April the signal was suddenly dropped, and soon after, Washington, with Governor Mifflin and a host of gentlemen who had gone out to meet him at the boundary line of Delaware, was seen riding slowly down the hill toward the river. As he passed under the first triumphal archway the crown of laurel was dropped on his brow, and a salute was fired from a cannon on the opposite shore, and the people, shouting, "Long live the President!" went over the bridge with him to the eastern bank, where the troops were waiting to conduct him to Philadelphia. The whole city came out to meet him, and as he passed through dense lines of cheering men, the bells of every church rang out a merry peal, and every face, says one who saw them, seemed to say, "Long, long, long live George Washington!"

That night he slept at Philadelphia, was addressed by the Executive Council of State, by the Mayor and Aldermen, by the judges of the Supreme Court, the Faculty of the University of Pennsylvania, and the members of the Society of the Cincinnati, and early the next morning set out with a troop of horse for Trenton..

On the bridge which spanned the Assanpink Creek, over which, twelve years before, the Hessians fled in confusion, he passed under a great dome supported by thirteen columns, and adorned with a huge sunflower, inscribed. "To thee alone." The women of Trenton had ordered this put up, and, just beyond the bridge were waiting, with their daughters, who, as he passed under the dome, began singing :

"Welcome, mighty chief, once more
Welcome to this grateful shore :
Now no mercenary foe
Aims again the fatal blow—
Aims at thee the fatal blow.

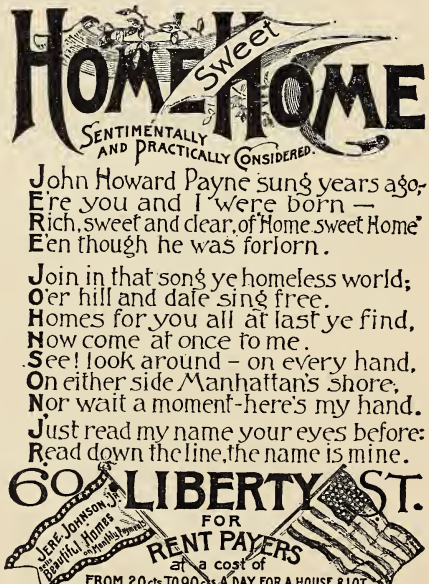
"Virgins fair and matrons grave,
Those thy conquering arms did save,
Build for thee triumphal bowers.
Strew ye fair his way with flowers—
Strew your hero's way with flowers."

As the last lines were sung the bevy of little girls came forward, strewing the road with flowers as they sang. Washington was greatly moved, thanked the children on the spot, and before he rode out

of town the next morning wrote a few words to their mothers, as follows :

" General Washington cannot leave this place without expressing his acknowledgments, to the matrons and young ladies who received him in so novel and grateful a manner at the triumphal arch in Trenton, for the exquisite sensation he experienced in that affecting moment. The astonishing contrast between his former and actual situation at the same spot—the elegant taste with which it was adorned for the present occasion—and the innocent appearance of the *white-robed* CHOIR which met him with the gratulatory song, have made such impressions on his remembrance as he assures them will never be effaced."

Leaving Princeton at 11 A. M., Wednesday, April 22, Washington proceeded to New Brunswick, where he was met by Livingston, the old War Governor of New Jersey. The next night was spent at Woodbridge. At Elizabeth Point, after crossing New Jersey, Washington was received by the committee appointed by Congress, with whom were the Chancellor of the State, the Adjutant-General, the Recorder of the city, Mr. Jay, Secretary of Foreign Affairs ; General Knox, Secretary of War ; Samuel Osgood, Arthur Lee and Walter Livingston, Commissioners of the Treasury, and Ebenezer



Hazard, Postmaster-General. This was early in the morning of April 23. A splendid barge, built for the purpose and manned by thirteen master pilots in white uniforms, under Commodore Nicholson, bore Washington and his suite to New York. Two other barges had been prepared for the Board of the Treasury, the Secretaries and the other dignitaries. With a favorable wind the party glided out across Newark Bay, "the very waters seeming to rejoice in bearing the precious burden over its placid bosom." The troops that were left behind fired repeated salutes from the shore.

The following description of this trip was written by Elias Boudinot to his wife the next day:

"You must have observed with what a propitious gale we left the shore and glided with steady motion across the Newark Bay, the very waters seeming to rejoice in bearing the precious burden over its placid bosom. The appearance of the troops we had left behind and their regular firings added much to our pleasure. When we drew near to the mouth of the Kills a number of boats with various flags came up with us and dropped in our wake. Soon after we entered the bay General Knox and several other officers in a large barge presented themselves with their splendid colors. Boat after boat, sloop after sloop, gayly dressed in all their naval ornaments, added to our train and made a most splendid appearance. Before we got to Bedloe's Island a large sloop came with full sail on our starboard bow, when there stood up about twenty gentlemen and ladies, who with most excellent voices sung an elegant ode, prepared for the purpose, to the tune of 'God Save the King,' welcoming their great chief to the seat of government. On its conclusion we saluted them with our hats, and then they with the surrounding boats gave us three cheers. Soon after, another boat came under our stern and presented us with a number of copies of a second ode, and immediately about a dozen gentlemen began to sing it, in parts, as we passed along. Our worthy President was greatly affected with these tokens of profound respect. As we approached the harbor, our train increased, and the huzzaing and shouts of joy seemed to add life to this brilliant scene. At this moment a number of porpoises came playing amongst us as if they had risen up to know what was the cause of all this happiness.

"We now discovered the shores to be crowded with thousands of people—men, women, and children; nay, I may venture to say tens of thousands. From the fort to the place of landing, although near half a mile, you could see little else along the shore, in the streets, and on board every vessel but heads standing as thick as ears of corn

before the harvest. The vessels in the harbor made a most superb appearance indeed, dressed in all their pomp of attire.. The Spanish ship-of-war the *Galveston* in a moment, on a signal given, discovered twenty-seven or twenty-eight different colors, of all nations, on every part of the rigging; and paid us the compliment of thirteen guns, with her yards all manned, as did also another vessel in the harbor, the *North Carolina*, displaying colors in the same manner. We soon arrived at the ferry stairs, where there were many thousands of the citizens waiting with all the eagerness of expectation to welcome our excellent patriot to that shore which he regained from a powerful enemy by his valor and good conduct. We found the stairs covered with carpeting and the rails hung with crimson. The President, being preceded by the committee, was received by the governor and the citizens in the most brilliant manner. He was met on the wharf by many of his old and faithful officers and fellow-patriots, who had borne the heat and burthen of the day with him, who like him had experienced every reverse of fortune with fortitude and patience, and who now joined the universal chorus of welcoming their great deliverer (under Providence) from all their fears. It was with difficulty a passage could be made by the troops through the pressing crowds, who seemed incapable of being satisfied with gazing at this man of the people. You will see the particulars of the procession from the wharf to the house appointed for his residence in the newspapers. The streets were lined with the inhabitants, as thick as they could stand, and it required all the exertions of a numerous train of city officers, with their staves, to make a passage for the company. The houses were filled with gentlemen and ladies, the whole distance being about half a mile, and the windows to the highest stories were illuminated by the sparkling eyes of innumerable companies of ladies, who seemed to vie with each other in showing their joy on this great occasion. It was half an hour before we could finish our commission and convey the President to the house prepared for his residence. As soon as this was done, notwithstanding his great fatigue of both body and mind, he had to receive the gentlemen and officers to a very large nnmber, who wished to show their respect in the most affectionate manner. When this was finished and the people dispersed, we went (undressed) and dined with his Excellency Governor Clinton, who had provided an elegant dinner for us. Thus ended onr commission. The evening, though very wet, was spent by all ranks in visiting the city, street after street being illuminated in a superb manner. I cannot help stating now how highly we were favored in

the weather. The whole procession had been completely finished and we had repaired to the governor's before it began to rain. When the President was on the wharf an officer came up, and addressing him said he had the honor to command his guard, and that it was ready to obey his orders. The President answered that, as to the present arrangement, he should proceed as was directed, but that, after that was over he hoped he would give himself no farther trouble, as the affection of his fellow-citizens (turning to the crowd) was all the guard he wanted."

The landing-place was Murray's Wharf, near the foot of Wall street, where there was a ferry. Here the stairs and railings were carpeted and decorated. Governor Clinton formally received the President-elect. An enthusiastic crowd, that had been waiting expectantly at the ferry, made the air ring with tumultuous cheering as he appeared in the street. It was difficult to form a procession among the excited inhabitants, who were desperately struggling with each other in an effort to see George Washington. After some delay this was finally accomplished. The procession was headed by Colonel Morgan Lewis, aided by Majors Morton and Van Horne, all of whom were mounted. The military companies were next in line. Among them were Captain Stokes's horse-troops, accoutered in the style of Lee's famous Partisan Legion ; Captain Scriba's German Grenadiers, wearing blue coats, yellow waistcoats, knee-breeches, black gaiters, and towering cone-shaped hats faced with bear-skin ; Captain Harrison's New York Grenadiers, composed, in imitation of the Guard of Frederick the Great, of only the tallest and finest-looking young men in the city, dressed in blue coats, with red facings and gold-lace embroideries, white waistcoats and white knee-breeches, black leggins, and wearing cocked hats trimmed with white feathers ; Scotch infantry, in full Highland costume, playing bagpipes. Following the military companies were the sheriff of the county, the committee of Congress, the President-elect, Secretaries Jay and Knox, Chancellor Livingston, and distinguished men in State affairs, clergymen, and a large number of citizens. Washington was escorted to the Presidential mansion, which stood on the corner of Cherry street and Franklin square.

Here is the formal order of the procession :

Colonel Morgan Lewis, accompanied by Majors Morton and Van Horne.
Troop of Dragoons, Captain Stokes.
German Grenadiers, Captain Scriba.
Band of Music.
Infantry of the Brigade, Captains Swartout and Stediford.
Grenadiers, Captain Harsin.
Regiment of Artillery, Colonel Bauman.
Band of Music.
General Malcom and Aid.
Officers of the Militia, two and two.
Committee of Congress.
The President ; Governor Clinton.
President's Suite.
Mayor and Aldermen of New York.
The Reverend Clergy.
Their Excellencies the French and Spanish Ambassadors in their carriages.

The whole followed by an immense concourse of citizens.

Every house and building along the route was decorated with flags, silk banners, floral and evergreen garlands. Men, women and children of all degrees flocked through the streets, shouting, waving hats and kerchiefs in their almost delirious enthusiasm. The name of Washington was not only upon every lip, but displayed in ornamental arches, under which the procession passed. The official residence was known as the Walter Franklin House. It had been occupied by Samuel Osgood, of the Treasury Board, who moved out to give room to Washington and family. This house was a large, three-story brick structure, with a flat roof. Shortly after arriving at his new home, Washington was called upon and congratulated by Government officials, foreign ministers, public bodies, military celebrities, and many private citizens. He dined with Governor Clinton that evening at the latter's residence in Pearl street. The city was brilliantly illuminated in the evening, when there was a Fourth-of-July display of fireworks. New York fully appreciated the importance of the occasion.

CHAPTER XXVII.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN 1789—PREPARING FOR THE CEREMONY.

THE National Congress, at the time our first President was inaugurated, owed its meeting-place to the generosity of New York. After the adoption of the Constitution on September 13, 1788, it was determined that New York city should be the seat of Congress. The change occurred on December 23, 1788. The old City Hall in Wall street, in which the Continental Congress had been accustomed to meet, was placed by the corporation of the city at the disposal of Congress, and after reconstruction was known as Federal Hall. The City Hall was built about 1700. It was in the form of an L and open in the middle. The cellar contained dungeons for criminals. The first story had two wide staircases, two large and two small rooms. The middle of the second story was occupied by a court-room, with the assembly room on one side and the magistrate's room on the other. The debtors' cells were in the attic. At this time the building was falling to decay, and the depleted treasury furnished no means with which to erect a new structure, or even to remodel the old one. Fortunately, in this emergency, some of the prominent and wealthy men subscribed enough money, some thirty-two thousand dollars, necessary to make the alterations. When completed, it was for that period an imposing structure. The first story was made in Tuscan style, with seven openings. There were four massive pillars in the center, supporting heavy arches, above which rose four Doric columns. Thirteen stars were ingeniously worked in the panel of the cornice. The other ornamental work consisted of an eagle and the national insignia sculptured in the entablature, while over each window were thirteen arrows surrounded by olive branches, The Hall of Representatives was an octangular room fifty-eight by sixty-one feet, with an arched ceiling forty-six feet high in the middle. This hall had two galleries, a platform for the speaker, and a separate chair and desk for each member. The windows, which were wide and high, were sixteen feet from the floor, with quaint fire-places under them. The Senate chamber was twenty feet high, with dimensions

on the floor of thirty by forty feet. The arch of the ceiling represented a canopy containing thirteen stars, and a canopy of crimson damask hung over the President's chair. The chairs in the hall were arranged in semi-circular form. Three spacious windows opened out on Wall street. A balcony, twelve feet deep, guarded by a massive iron railing, was over the main entrance on Wall street, where there was a lofty vestibule paved with marble.

While the Federal Hall was being transformed, building operations were active in various parts of the city. Private houses and stores were being constructed along the roads in the sparsely populated regions above Chambers street, while warehouses were springing up along the river front in the lower part of the city. All the merchants and mechanics were busy. Business of all kinds was active and vigorous under the stimulus of the new order of things in Federal affairs.

The arrangements for the inauguration proceeded rapidly. In the preliminary report of the Congressional committee of arrangements, offered on Saturday, the 25th of April, it was declared that the President should be formally received by both Houses in the Senate Chamber on Thursday, the 30th of April, and that both Houses should then move into the Representatives' Chamber, where the oath was to be administered by the Chancellor of the State of New York. Two days later the place for taking the oath was changed to the "outer gallery adjoining the Senate Chamber," and it was decided that the President, the Vice-President, and both Houses should proceed after the ceremony to St. Paul's Church to hear divine service. The idea of holding service in St. Paul's Church created considerable discussion. Senator William Maclay of Pennsylvania said in his journal, on the Monday before the inauguration :

"A new arrangement was reported from the joint committee of ceremonies. This is an endless business. Lee offered a motion to the chair that after the President was sworn (which now is to be in the gallery opposite the Senate Chamber) the Congress should accompany him to St. Paul's Church and attend divine service. This had been agitated in the joint committee, but Lee said expressly *that they would not agree to it.* I opposed it as an improper business, after it had been in the hands of the joint committee and rejected, as I thought this a certain method of creating a dissension between the Houses."

The question of holding services on the day of the inauguration had been agitated by the clergymen in town. When Bishop Provoost

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was applied to on the subject he replied, so Ebenezer Hazard wrote, that the Church of England "had always been used to look up to Government upon such occasions, and he thought it prudent not to do anything till they knew what Government would direct. If the good bishop never prays without an order from Government," added Hazard, "it is not probable that the kingdom of heaven will suffer much from his violence." It must have been a relief to Bishop Provoost, therefore, when Congress agreed to the service in St. Paul's Church.

Meanwhile Washington had been waited upon by the two Houses of Congress, who offered him their congratulations. Similar congratulatory calls were made by other bodies, including the Chamber of Commerce, whose members met at the Coffee House at half-past eleven o'clock one morning, and proceeded to the presidential mansion, where they were introduced by John Broome, the president of the Chamber.

New York was strained with the great crowd of people from all sections of the country, who had come to attend the great inauguration of an American President. The taverns and boarding-houses were packed to the doors. One young lady named Bertha Ingersoll wrote to Miss McKean, afterwards Marchioness d'Yrugo :—"We shall remain here even if we have to sleep in tents, as so many will have to do. Mr. Williamson had promised to obtain us rooms at Fraunces', but that was jammed long ago, as was every other decent public house ; and now while we are waiting at Mrs. Vandervoort's in Maiden lane, till after dinner, two of our beaux are running about town determined to obtain the best places for us to stay at which can be opened for love, money or the most persuasive speeches."

But the words of a young lady, who adds a postscript in a letter to Boston, read better than any others :—"I have seen him! And though I had been entirely ignorant that he was arrived in the city I should have known at a glance it was General Washington. I never saw a human being that looked so great and noble as he does. I could fall down on my knees before him and bless him for all the good he has done for this country." Enthusiasm such as this did not worry seriously about accommodations.

All the hotels and even private mansions were crowded. Excitement ran high. There was an insatiable desire prevalent to get a look at Washington, who had been described as the noblest, grandest man human eyes ever saw. Old people expressed their readiness to die after having once seen the first President. Impatiently every-

body waited for the great day, April 30th—the dawn of a new era in which the reign of order should supplement that of liberty and both should prevail together.

Congress was busy in preparing rules of order for itself, discussing the tariff, in organizing the judiciary, in arranging for a house for the President, and in preparations to receive him and the Vice-President in New York. Each day brought new members into Federal Hall. From the second day of April, the day after a quorum had been formed, until the last day of the month, the House of Representatives received nineteen new members, only ten of whom it is necessary to mention by name: Lambert Cadwalader of New Jersey, Isaac Coles of Virginia, Joshua Seney and Benjamin Contee of Maryland, Ædanus Burke, Daniel Huger, and William Smith of South Carolina, Peter Sylvester and John Hathorn of New York, and Jonathan Grout of Massachusetts. Of the other nine, however, something more should be said. Two were noted Pennsylvanians: George Clymer, fifty years old, a signer of the Declaration, and a framer of the Constitution of the United States; and Thomas Fitzsimmons, born in

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Ireland, forty-eight years old, and a member of the old Congress and of the Constitutional Convention. One of the most distinguished men from the South was Abraham Baldwin of Georgia, thirty-five years old, graduate of and tutor in Yale College, chaplain in the Revolution, lawyer, founder and president of the University of Georgia, member of the Continental Congress and Constitutional Convention, and afterwards United States Senator. The remainder in the list of Representatives who were present at the inauguration of Washington were George Partridge of Massachusetts, forty-nine years old, graduate of Harvard, delegate to the Continental Congress ; John Lawrence of New York, born in England thirty-nine years before, lawyer, soldier during the entire Revolution, member of the old Congress ; Egbert Benson of New York, forty-two, graduate of Columbia College, member of the Continental Congress, and first president of the New York Historical Society ; Thomas Sinnickson of New Jersey, a man of classical education and a captain in the battles of Trenton and Princeton ; James Jackson of Georgia, native of England, thirty-one years old, Revolutionary soldier, lawyer, and afterwards United States Senator ; and William Floyd of New York, fifty-five, a member of the old Congress for nine years, and one of the immortal band of signers of the Declaration of Independence.

Six Senators made their appearance in the Senate Chamber in the interval between the formal organization and the inauguration of Washington : Ralph Izard of South Carolina, Charles Carroll and John Henry of Maryland, George Read of Delaware, Tristram Dalton of Massachusetss. and James Gunn of Georgia. Of these it should be said that Henry was a Princeton graduate, member of the old Congress, and governor of Maryland ; and Read was a lawyer of fifty-five, who enjoyed the distinction, as a delegate of the Congress of 1774, of having signed the petition to George III., as a member of the Congress of 1776, the Declaration, and as a member of the Federal Convention of 1787, the Constitution. Izard, educated at Christ College, Cambridge, was forty-seven.

The first Senate was altogether a distinguished body. Its members were prominent as well for social station as for intellectual brilliancy and oratorical ability. Each State had sent its best men.

The ceremonies on April 30 were begun with a discharge of artillery at sunrise from old Fort George, near Bowling Green. At nine the bells of the churches rang for half an hour, and the congregations gathered in their respective places of worship "to implore the blessings of heaven upon their new Government, its favor and protection

to the President, and success and acceptance to his administration." The military were meanwhile preparing to parade, and at twelve o'clock marched before the President's house on Cherry street. A part of the procession came direct from Federal Hall. Following Captain Stokes with his troop of horse were the "assistants"—General Samuel Blatchley Webb, Colonel William S. Smith, Lieutenant-Colonel Nicholas Fish, Lieutenant-Colonel Franks, Major L'Enfant, Major Leonard Bleecker, and Mr. John R. Livingston. Following the assistants were Egbert Benson, Fisher Ames and Daniel Carroll, the committee of the House of Representatives; Richard Henry Lee, Ralph Izard and Tristram Dalton, the committee of the Senate; John Jay, General Henry Knox, Samuel Osgood, Arthur Lee, Walter Livingston, the heads of the three great departments; and gentlemen in carriages and citizens on foot. The full procession left the Presidential mansion at half-past twelve o'clock, and proceeded to Federal Hall via Queen street, Great Dock and Broad street. Colonel Morgan Lewis as Grand Marshal, attended by Majors Van Horne and Jacob Morton as aides-de-camp, led the way. Then followed the troop of horse; the artillery, the two companies of grenadiers, a company of light infantry and the battalion men; a company in the full uniform of Scotch Highlanders, with the national music of the bagpipe; the Sheriff, Robert Boyd, on horseback; the Senate committee; the President in a state-coach, drawn by four horses, and attended by the assistants and civil officers; Colonel Humphreys and Tobias Lear, in the President's own carriage; the committee of the House; Mr. Jay, General Knox, Chancellor Livingston; his Excellency the Count de Moustier, and His Excelleucy Don Diegode Gardoqui, the French and Spanish ambassadors; other gentlemen of distinction, and a multitude of citizens. The two companies of grenadiers attracted much attention. One, composed of the tallest young men in the city, were dressed "in blue with red facings and gold-laced ornaments, cocked hats with white feathers, with waistcoats and breeches and white gaiters, or spatterdashes, close buttoned from the shoe to the knee and covering the shoe-buckle. The second, or German company, wore blue coats with yellow waist-coats and breeches, black gaiters similar to those already described, and towering caps, cone-shaped and faced with black bearskin."

When the military, which amounted to "not more than five hundred men," and whose "appearance was quite pretty," arrived within two hundred yards of Federal Hall, at one o'clock, they were drawn up on each side, and Washington and the assistants, and the gentle-

men especially invited, marched through the lines and proceeded to the Senate Chamber of the "Federal State House."

The order in which the procession marched was as follows :

The Military.
The Sheriff of the City and County of New York.
The Committee of the Senate.
GEORGE WASHINGTON.
The Committee of the House of Representatives.
John Jay, Secretary for Foreign Affairs.
Henry Knox, Secretary of War.
Robert R. Livingston, Chancellor of the State of New York.
Distinguished Citizens.

In the Senate all was confusion ; for, the moment the business of the day began, Mr. Adams had propounded a question of etiquette. The House, he said, would soon attend them, and the President would surely deliver a speech. What should be done? How would the Senate behave ? Would it stand or sit while the President spoke ? Members who had been in London and had seen a Parliament opened were for following the custom of England, which was, Mr. Lee declared, for the Commons to stand. Mr. Izard declared the Commons stood because there were not benches enough in the room for them to sit. A third was in the midst of a strong protest against aping the follies of royal governments, when Mr. Adams announced that the Clerk of the House was at the door. A new question of etiquette at once arose, for the Vice-President was at a loss how to receive him. The sentiment of the admirers of England was that the Clerk should never be admitted within the bar, but that the Sergeant-at-arms, with the mace upon his shoulder, should march solemnly down to the door and receive the message. This unhappily could not be done, for the Senate had neither a mace nor a sergeant. What should be done was still unsettled when the Speaker, with the House of Representatives at his heels, came hurrying into the Chamber. All business was instantly stopped, and the three Senators who ought to have attended the President long before, set off for his house. As Washington could not leave till they arrived, the procession, which had been forming since sunrise, was greatly delayed, and for an hour and ten minutes the Senators and Representatives chafed and scolded. At last the shouting in the streets made known that the President was come.

A few minutes later he entered the room, and both Houses were formally presented.

For the occasion it is related that Washington was dressed in a dark brown cloth suit, of American manufacture (made in Hartford, Conn.), trimmed with "Eagle" metal buttons, and white silk stockings, with shoe-buckles of plain silver. He wore a steel-hilted dress sword. He had taken no part in any festivities while in New York, but had been awaiting with a solemn sense of responsibility the day which had now come.

The Bible on which the oath was taken had been secured by Livingston from the St. John's Lodge of Free Masons, whose rooms were near by. A fac-simile of the two pages open when the oath was administered was recently published in "The Century." It is bound in red morocco with gilt ornamentation and edges and silver clasps, and is eleven inches high, nine wide and three and a-half thick. On the obverse and reverse covers are two inscriptions very nearly alike, the first of which is as follows :

GOD SHALL ESTABLISH
ST. JOHNS LODGE CONSTITUTED
5757
REBUILT AND OPENED
NOVEMBER 28 5770
OFFICERS THEN PRESIDING
JONATHAN HAMPTON M
WILLIAM BUTLER S W
ISAAC HERON J W

The reverse cover is shown with first page of this article. The binding may be by Roger Payne.

The Bible was published in London by Mark Baskett in 1767, and contains a large picture of George II., besides being handsomely illustrated with biblical scenes. The page of the Bible which Washington kissed is also indicated by the leaf being turned down. A copper-plate engraving explanatory of the forty-ninth chapter of Genesis is on the opposite page. On one of the fly-leaves is the following description of what was done on April 30, 1789—written so indistinctly that it is almost impossible to photograph it :

On Sacred | A picture of Stuart's Washington. | This Volume,

On the 30th day of April, A. M. 5789,
In the City of New York,
was administered to
GEORGE WASHINGTON,
The first President of the United States of America,
The Oath,
To support the Constitution of the United States.
This important ceremony was
Performed by the most worshipful Grand Master of Free and Accepted Masons,
Of the State of New York,
The Honorable
Robert R. Livingston,
Chancellor of the State.

Fame stretched her wings and with her trumpet blew :
" Great Washington is near—what praise is due ?
What title shall we have ?" She paused—and said :
" Not one—his name alone strikes every title dead."

The moment for which an immense crowd had been impatiently waiting had now arrived. The balcony on which the ceremony was to take place was eagerly watched by everybody. Inside, necessary preliminaries had all been attended to. Vice-President Adams, who had taken the oath of office a few days previously, had met Washington at the entrance and escorted him to the President's chair. Having made the formal introduction, the Vice-President had turned to Washington and gravely addressed him as follows : "Sir, the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States are ready to attend you to take the oath required by the Constitution, which will be administered by the Chancellor of the State of New York."

The President had replied : " I am ready to proceed;" and so they appeared upon the balcony.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE INAUGURATION OF WASHINGTON, 1789—TAKING THE OATH OF OFFICE.

Windows were filled and house-tops covered with people as far as the eye could reach when the Presidential party stepped out. Behind George Washington were many of the ablest and most illustrious citizens the country had then produced. Among the Senators stood John Langdon, of New Hampshire, once President of his State, and long a delegate to the Continental Congress ; Oliver Ellsworth, soon to become a Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court ; William Paterson, ten times Attorney-General of New Jersey ; Richard Henry Lee and Richard Bassett and George Reed, men whose names appear alike at the foot of the Declaration of Independence and at the foot of the Constitution of the United States ; William Johnson, a scholar and a judge, and one of the few Americans whose learning had obtained recognition abroad ; while conspicuous even in that goodly company was the noble brow and thoughtful face of Robert Morris, the financier of the Revolution.

The Representatives as a body were men of lesser note. Yet among those who that morning stood about the President were a few whose names are as illustrious as any on the roll of the Senate. There were James Madison, to whom, with James Wilson, is to be ascribed the chief part in framing and defending the Constitution ; and Fisher Ames, the finest orator the House ever heard till it listened to Henry Clay ; and Elbridge Gerry, the Anti-federalist, who pronounced the Constitution dangerous and bad, who would not sign it in convention, but who lived to see his worst fears dissipated, and died a Vice-President of the United States ; and Roger Sherman and George Clymer, who with Gerry dated their public service to a time before the Revolution, and who in defense of that cause had staked "their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor," and signed the first grand charter of our liberties.

Chancellor Livingston, dressed in a clerical suit of black, administered the oath in measured tones. As Washington kissed the Bible, he closed his eyes and murmured with a depth of emotion, rare even

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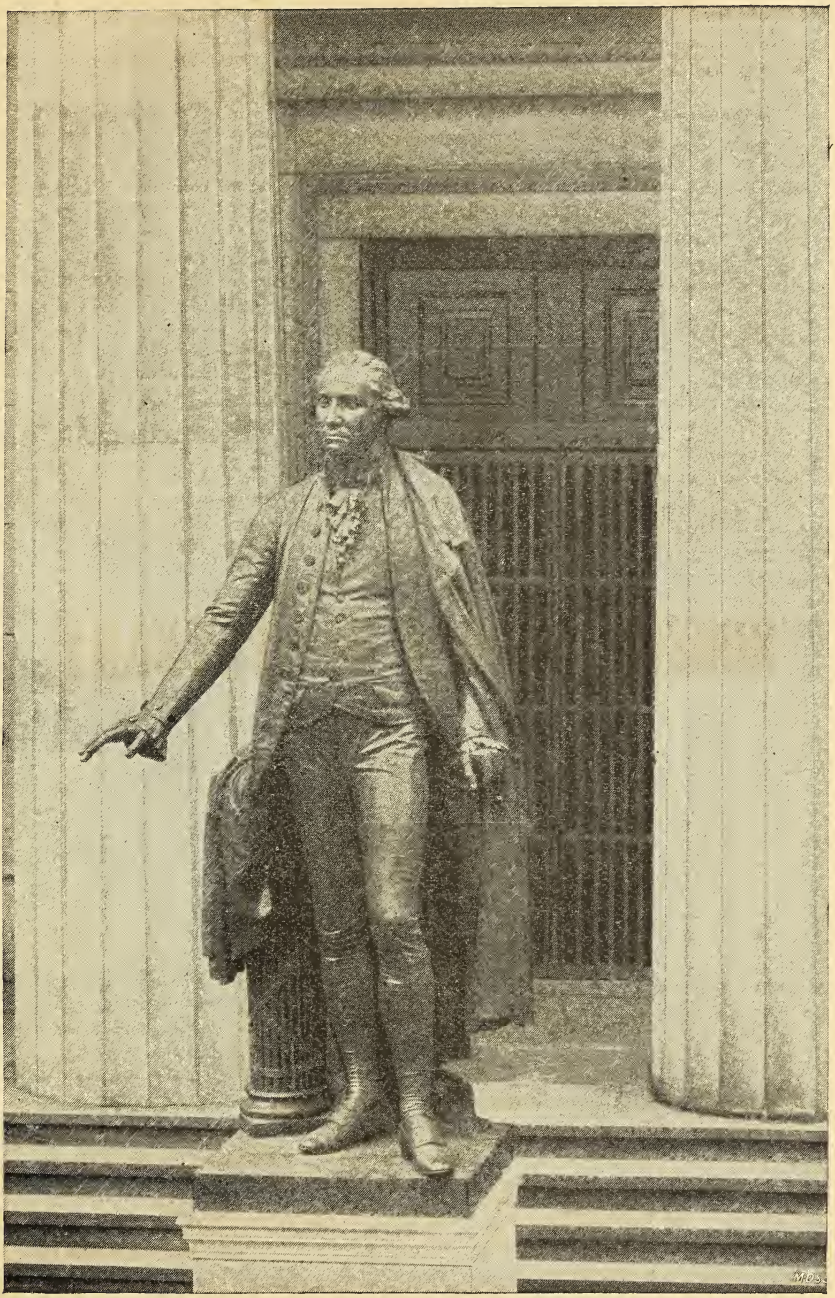
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for him, "I swear—so help me God!" When the last words of the oath had been uttered he turned to the people and cried out, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" The cry was instantly taken up, and with the roar of cannon and the shouts of his countrymen ringing in his ears, Washington went back to the Senate-Chamber to deliver his speech. There he found the Chamber thronged with a vast assemblage of cheering, noisy, enthusiastic citizens, who grew silent at once at his appearance. He bowed low, and in almost tremulous tones, spoke as follows:

"FELLOW-CITIZENS OF THE SENATE AND OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES:—Among the vicissitudes incident to life, no event could have filled me with greater anxieties than that of which the notification was transmitted by your order, and received on the fourteenth day of the present month. On the one hand I was summoned by my country, whose voice I can never hear but with veneration and love, from a retreat which I had chosen with the fondest predilection, and, in my flattering hopes, with an immutable decision as the asylum of my declining years—a retreat which was rendered every day more necessary as well as more dear to me, by the addition of habit to inclination, and of frequent interruptions in my health to the gradual waste committed on it by time. On the other hand, the magnitude and difficulty of the trust to which the voice of my country called me, being sufficient to awaken in the wisest and most experienced of her citizens a distrustful scrutiny into his qualifications could not but overwhelm with despondence one who inheriting inferior endowments from nature, and unpracticed in the duties of civil administration, ought to be peculiarly conscious of his own deficiencies. In this conflict of emotions, all I dare aver is, that it has been my faithful study to collect my duty from a just appreciation of every circumstance by which it might be affected. All I dare hope is, that if, in accepting this task, I have been too much swayed by a remembrance of former instances, or by an affectionate sensibility to this transcendent proof of the confidence of my fellow-citizens and have thence too little consulted my incapacity as well as disinclination for the weighty and untried cares before me, my error will be palliated by the motives which misled me, and its consequences be judged by my country with some share of the partiality in which they originated. Such being the impressions under which I have in obedience to the public summons repaired to the present station, it will be peculiarly improper to omit in this first official act my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being who rules over the universe, who presides in the

councils of nations, and whose providential aids can supply every human defect, that his benediction may consecrate to the liberties and happiness of the people of the United States, a government instituted by themselves for these essential purposes, and may enable every instrument employed in its administration, to execute with success the function allotted to its charge. In tendering this homage to the great Author of every public and private good, I assure myself that it expresses your sentiments not less than my own, nor those of my fellow-citizens at large less than either. No people can be bound to acknowledge and adore the invisible hand which conducts the affairs of men more than the people of the United States. Every step by which they have advanced to the character of an independent nation seems to have been distinguished by some token of providential agency. And the important revolution just accomplished in the system of their united government, the tranquil deliberations and voluntary consent of so many distinct communities, from which the event has resulted, cannot be compared with the means by which most governments have been established, without some return of pious gratitude, along with an humble anticipation of the future blessings which the past seems to presage. These reflections, arising out of the present crisis, have forced themselves too strongly on my mind to be suppressed. You will join with me, I trust, in thinking that there are none under the influence of which the proceedings of a new and free government can more auspiciously commence. By the article establishing the Executive Department, it is made the duty of the President to recommend to your consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient. The circumstances under which I now meet you will acquit me from entering into the subject, further than to refer to the great constitutional charter under which you are assembled, and which, in defining your powers, designates the objects to which your attention is to be given. It will be more than consistent with these circumstances and far more congenial with the feelings which actuate me, to substitute in place of a recommendation of particular measures, the tribute that is due to the talents, the rectitude, and the patriotism which adorn the characters selected to devise and adopt them. In these honorable qualifications I behold the surest pledges that as, on one side, no local prejudices or attachments, no separate views nor party animosities, will misdirect a comprehensive and equal eye which ought to watch over this great assemblage of communities and interests; so on another, that the foundations of our national policy will be laid in the pure and

immutable principles of private morality, and the pre-eminence of free government be exemplified by all the attributes which can win the affections of its citizens and command the respect of the world. I dwell on this prospect with every satisfaction which an ardent love for my country can inspire. Since there is no truth more thoroughly established than that there exists in the economy and course of nature an indissoluble union between virtue and happiness; between duty and advantage; between the genuine maxims of an honest and magnanimous policy, and the solid rewards of public prosperity and felicity; since we ought to be no less persuaded that the propitious smiles of Heaven can never be expected on a nation that disregards the eternal rule of order and right, which Heaven itself has ordained; and since the preservation of the sacred fire of liberty and the destiny of the republican model of government, are justly considered as deeply, perhaps as finally staked on the experiment entrusted to the hands of the American people. Besides the ordinary objects submitted to your care, it will remain with your judgment to decide how far an exercise of the occasional power delegated by the fifth article of the Constitution, is rendered expedient at the present juncture by the nature of objections which have been urged against the system, or by the degree of inquietude which has given birth to them. Instead of undertaking particular recommendations on this subject, in which I would be guided by no lights derived from official opportunities, I shall again give way to my entire confidence in your discernment and pursuit of the public good. For I assure myself that whilst you carefully avoid every alteration which might endanger the benefits of a united and effective government, or which ought to await the future lessons of experience; a reverence for the characteristic rights of freemen, and a regard for the public harmony, will sufficiently influence your deliberations on the question, how far the former can be more impregnably fortified, or the latter be safely and advantageously promoted. To the preceding observations I have one to add, which will be most properly addressed to the House of Representatives. It concerns myself, and will, therefore, be as brief as possible. When I was first honored with a call into the service of my country, then on the eve of an arduous struggle for its liberties, the light in which I contemplated my duty required that I should renounce every pecuniary compensation. From this resolution I have in no instance departed. And being still under the impressions which produced it, I must decline as inapplicable to myself any share in the personal emoluments which may be indispensably included in a permanent

provision for the Executive Department, and must accordingly pray that the pecuniary estimates for the station in which I am placed may, during my continuance in it, be limited to such actual expenditures as the public good may be thought to require. Having thus imparted to you my sentiments as they have been awakened by the occasion which brings us together, I shall take my present leave, but not without resorting once more to the benign Parent of the human race in humble supplication—that since he has been pleased to favor the American people with opportunities for deliberating in perfect tranquillity and dispositions for deciding with unparalleled unanimity on a form of government, for the security of their union and the advancement of their happiness, so His divine blessings may be equally conspicuous in the enlarged views, the temperate consultations, and the wise measures on which the success of this Government must depend."

The inaugural was brief and perhaps more comprehensive than some which have succeeded it. That it was more effective goes without saying. The circumstances all conspired to give solemnity to this occasion,

As soon as the ceremonies were over, President Washington, accompanied by the Vice-President, Chancellor Livingston, members of the Cabinet, and other prominent officials, proceeded to St. Paul's Chapel, where a special devotional service was conducted by Bishop Provoost, a chaplain in Congress. This modest little edifice was crowded to the doors. The service was impressive and solemn. After it ended, the President was escorted to his mansion.

The people meanwhile went off to their favorite taverns to drink prosperity to Washington and Adams, and wait with impatience for the coming night. As the first stars began to shine, bonfires were lighted in many of the streets, and eleven candles put up in the windows of many of the houses. The front of Federal Hall was a blaze of light. There was a fine transparency in front of the theatre, and another near the Fly Market, and a third on the Bowling Green, near the fort. But the crowd was densest and staid the longest before the figure-pieces and moving transparencies that appeared in the windows of the house of the minister of Spain, and before the rich display of lanterns that hung round the doors and windows of the house occupied by the minister of France. The night in the city was one of enchanting beauty, all the residences being brilliantly illuminated, the air filled with pyrotechnic effects and various transparencies, representing Washington amid allegorical influences, displayed at differ-

ent points. The President was taken to the house of Chancellor Livingston to view the fireworks, and it was necessary for him to return to the Executive Mansion at ten o'clock on foot, because the thronged condition of the streets made it an impossibility for a carriage to pass.

Of the inaugural ceremony, Miss Eliza Quincy, an eye-witness, wrote: "I was on the roof of the first house in Broad street, which belonged to Captain Prince, the father of one of my school companions, and so near Washington that I could almost hear him speak. The windows and the roofs of the houses were crowded, and in the streets the throng was so dense that it seemed as if one might literally walk on the heads of the people. The balcony of the hall was in full view of this assembled multitude. In the center of it was placed a table with a rich covering of red velvet, and upon this, on a crimson velvet cushion, lay a large and elegant Bible. This was all the paraphernalia for the august scene. All eyes were fixed upon the balcony, where at the appointed hour Washington entered, accompanied by the Chancellor of the State of New York, who was to administer the oath, by John Adams, Vice-President, Governor Clinton, and many other distinguished men. By the great body of the people he had probably never been seen except as a military hero. The first in war was now to be the first in peace. His entrance on the balcony was announced by universal shouts of joy and welcome. His appearance was most solemn and dignified. Advancing to the front of the balcony, he laid his hand on his heart, bowed several times, and then retired to an arm-chair near the table. The populace appeared to understand that the scene had overcome him, and were at once hushed in profound silence. After a few moments Washington arose and came forward. Chancellor Livingston read the oath, according to the form prescribed by the Constitution, and Washington repeated it, resting his hand upon the table. Mr. Otis, the Secretary of the Senate, then took the Bible and raised it to the lips of Washington, who stooped and kissed the book. At this moment a signal was given by raising a flag upon the cupola of the hall for a general discharge of the artillery of the Battery. All the bells in the city rang out a peal of joy, and the assembled multitude sent forth a universal shout. The President again bowed to the people, and then retired from a scene such as the proudest monarch never enjoyed."

Senator Maclay is a witness to Washington's agitation during the address. He said: "This great man was agitated and embarrassed more than ever he was by the leveled cannon or pointed musket. He

trembled, and several times could scarce make out to read, though it must be supposed he had often read it before. He made a flourish with his right hand, which left rather an ungainly impression. I sincerely, for my part, wished all set ceremony in the hands of dancing-masters, and that this first of men had read off his address in the plain manner, without ever taking his eyes from the paper; for I feel hurt that he was not first in everything."

Fisher Ames, who also heard Washington's address, wrote: "It was a very touching scene, and quite of the solemn kind. His aspect grave, almost to sadness; his modesty, actually shaking; his voice deep, a little tremulous, and so low as to call for close attention—added to the series of objects presented to the mind, and overwhelming it, produced emotions of the most affecting kind upon the members.

On the morning after the inauguration the President received calls from Vice-President Adams, Governor Clinton, John Jay, General Henry Knox, Ebenezer Hazard, Samuel Osgood, Arthur Lee, the French and Spanish ambassadors, "and a great many other persons of distinction." But Tuesday and Friday afternoons, between the hours of two and three o'clock, were appointed by the President for receiving formal visits. He discouraged complimentary calls on other days, and particularly on Sunday. The ball which it was intended to give on the evening of Inauguration Day was postponed that the wife of the President might attend. But when it was learned that she would not arrive in New York until the last of May, it was decided to give the ball on the evening of Thursday, May 5. It was a brilliant assembly. Besides the President, Vice-President, many members of Congress, the Governor and the foreign ministers, there were present Chancellor Livingston, John Jay, General Knox, Chief-Justice Yates of New York State, James Duane (the mayor), Baron Steuben, General Hamilton, Mrs. Langdon, Mrs. Peter Van Brugh Livingston, Mrs. Livingston of Clermont, Mrs. Chancellor Livingston, Mrs. Gerry, Mrs. Thomson, Mrs. Montgomery, Mrs. Edgar, Mrs. Beekman, Mrs. Dalton, Mrs. McComb, Mrs. Lynch, the Marchioness de Brehan, Lady Stirling and her two daughters, Lady Mary Watts and Lady Kitty Duer, Lady Temple, Madame de la Forest, Mrs. Knox, Mrs. Houston, Mrs. Griffin, Mrs. Provoost, the Misses Livingston and the Misses Bayard. About three hundred were present. It is related that the President, who had danced repeatedly while Commander-in-Chief, danced in the cotillion and the minuet at this ball. "The company retired about two o'clock, after having spent a most agreeable evening. Joy, satisfaction and vivacity were expressed in every countenance, and every pleasure seemed to be heightened by the presence of *a Washington.*"

CHAPTER XXIX.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN 1789—CHANGE IN THE SURROUNDINGS OF HIS LIFE.

New York, of a hundred years ago, may be fairly regarded as the social centre of the States. There was a great deal of entertainment, much elegant dressing, and some extravagance among the "best people" here. Some idea of the style of costume in vogue among the ladies may be gathered from descriptions of a few of the dresses worn at the inauguration ball alluded to in the last chapter.

"One favorite dress was a plain celestial blue satin gown, with a white satin petticoat. On the neck was worn a very large Italian gauze handkerchief, with border stripes of satin. The head-dress was a *pouf* of gauze, in the form of a globe, the *creneaux*, or head-piece, of which was composed of white satin, having a double wing in large plates and trimmed with a wreath of roses. The hair was dressed all over in detached curls, four of which, in two ranks, fell on each side of the neck and were relieved behind by a floating chignon. Another beautiful dress was a perriot made of gray Indian taffeta, with dark stripes of the same color, having two collars, one yellow and the other white, both trimmed with blue silk fringe. Under the perriot they wore a yellow corset or bodice, with large cross stripes of blue. Some of the ladies with this dress wore hats *à l'Espagnole*, of white satin. This hat, which, with a plume, was a very popular article of head-dress, was relieved on the left side by two handsome cockades. On the neck was worn a very large gauze handkerchief, the ends of which were hid under the bodice, after the manner represented in Trumbull's and Stewart's portraits of Lady Washington."

In this connection a letter may be quoted written by Miss Sarah Robinson to a friend on the day of the inauguration:

"Great rejoicing in New York on the arrival of General Washington; an elegant barge decorated with an awning of satin, twelve oarsmen dressed in white frocks and blue ribbons went down to E. Town [Elizabethtown] last fourth day [Wednesday] to bring him up. A stage was erected at the Coffee-house wharf, with a carpet for him to step on, where a company of Light horse, one of artillery, and most of

the inhabitants were waiting to receive him ; they paraded through Queen street in great form, while the music of the drums and the ringing of the bells were enough to stun one with the noise. Previous to his coming, Uncle Walter's house in Cherry street was taken for for him, and every room furnished in the most elegant manner. Aunt Osgood and Lady Kitty Duer had the whole management of it. I went the morning before the General's arrival to take a look at it. The best of furniture in every room, and the greatest quantity of plate and china I ever saw ; the whole of the first and second stories is papered and the floors covered with the richest kind of Turkey and Wilton carpets. The house did honour to my aunts and Lady Kitty, they spared no pains nor expense on it. Thou must know that Uncle Osgood and Duer were appointed to procure a house and furnish it, accordingly they pitched on their wives as being likely to do it better. I have not yet done, my dear. Is thee not almost tired ? The evening after His Excellency arrived, there was a general illumination took place, except among Friends (Quakers) and those styled Anti-Federalist. The latters' windows suffered some, thou may imagine. As soon as the General has sworn in, a grand exhibition of fireworks is to be displayed, which, it is expected, is to be to-morrow. There is scarcely anything talked about now but General Washington and the palace."

An invitation to a ball in New York that year has been lately republished. It is printed upon the back of a playing card, and runs : "Mrs. Johnson—At Home—December 12—An Answer—Quadrilles at ten." Soon after the assembling of the guests, black waiters appeared bearing trays with "tea, coffee, hot milk, plum, pound, and queen cake, bread and butter, and toast." Next, a fresh relay of "spoons and empty plates go jingling round," and "green sweetmeats, with preserved ginger" were consumed. Lemonade and wine were drunk : then came a course of "peaches, apples, pears, with sangaree and wine." At this period gentlemen resorted to the card-tables, and certain ladies to the piano, to delight the audience with "Ye Shepherds fond," or selections from the Italian operas. Again the waiters with "pyramids of red and white ice-cream, with punch and liquors, rose, cinnamon, parfait amour." Then was formed the first cotillion, at the close of which "dried fruits, almonds, raisins, nuts and wine" were passed. After an interval all too short, "bon-bons, mottoes, confitures, sugar-plums" appeared, and—last act of this woful tragedy,—which till now, had been what is innocently called in the Colorado vernacular a "lap party,"—the guests were sum-



WASHINGTON AND HIS CABINET.

(From cut published by Currier & Ives.)

moned to "a *full* supper of sandwiches, tongues, ham, chickens, and pickled oysters."

The manners and customs of the citizens were still primitive. The Dutch language prevailed, and many of the signs seen over business places were in Dutch. Every householder swept the street in front of his home twice a week. Oil lamps were used for lighting the streets. Coal was unknown. Hickory wood was the chief fuel. Early every morning milkmen walked through the streets bearing yokes, similar to those used by farmers in New England to-day, on their shoulders, from which dangled tin cans, and crying, "Milk ho!" Water from the "tea-water pump" was carried about in carts and retailed at a penny a gallon. The chimneys were swept by small negro boys, who went their rounds at daybreak shouting, "Sweep, ho! sweep, ho! from the bottom to the top without a ladder. Sweep, ho!"

The men wore long Continental coats, with brass buttons and side pockets, knee-breeches, low shoes with big buckles, and three-cornered hats. Ruffled shirts, lace sleeves, white silk stockings, powdered hair, which was combed back and tied in a queue, were conspicuous features of the men's dress. The correct thing, or full dress of gentlemen, however, was composed of cambric ruffled shirts, light-colored velvet knee-breeches, silk or satin waistcoats, silk stockings, and low shoes with brass buckles. Ladies wore low-neck dresses, flowing sleeves, hoops, and high Dutch hats. The ordinary dress of the women was, however, more modest. It consisted of a short gown and petticoat of any color and material that suited the taste of the wearer.

Wall street presented a brilliant scene every afternoon. Ladies in showy costumes and gentlemen in silks, satins, velvets, ruffled shirts and powdered periwigs, promenaded up and down the street in front of the City Hall, and on Broadway from St. Paul's Chapel to the Battery. Broadway was also a popular thoroughfare for driving, and many stylish turnouts were seen every day rattling up and down the street. A liveried footman always rode behind each carriage. Horseback riding was also popular, and gentlemen of prominence in State affairs often traveled this way, partly because it gave them exercise and because it was fashionable. The social world was in constant agitation over the arrival of statesmen and distinguished people from different parts of the Union and from Europe.

In the absence of Mrs. Washington, the arbiter of the President's domestic arrangements was the invaluable Samuel Fraunces, who for-

sook other dignities to assume that of steward of the household. On May 7, 1789, the "New York Packet" contained an official announcement from this personage, warning all shopkeepers that to "servants and others employed to secure provisions for the household of the President of the United States moneys will be furnished for the purpose," and that no accounts were to be opened with any of them. That the first President could not claim entire immunity from the minor ills of life we find in his advertisement for a cook and a coachman, which held the columns of the "New York Packet" during at least three weeks:

"A Cook is wanted for the Family of the President of the United States. No one need apply who is not perfect in the business, and can bring indubitable testimonials of sobriety, honesty, and attention to the duties of the station."

"A Coachman, who can be well recommended for his skill in Driving, attention to Horses, and for his honesty, sobriety, and good disposition, would likewise find employment in the Family of the President of the United States."

"Fraunces," writes Washington to Lear, after removal to Philadelphia, whither the ex-boniface did not accompany him, "besides being an excellent cook, knowing how to provide genteel dinners, and giving aid in dressing them, prepared the dessert and made the cake." But Fraunces, despite these accomplishments, was not so great an economist as the President desired to see him. Goaded by the criticisms of the Anti-federalists upon his taste for splendor, Washington mounted his first establishment in New York upon what seem to us very simple lines. No more servants were kept than were absolutely required by the family. The old abundant living of Mount Vernon, where fish, flesh, and fowl were yielded by Nature at his doors, became a thing of the past. The purchase by Fraunces at the Fly Market of an early shad for the sum of two dollars was the occasion of a stern rebuke from the President, who, on ascertaining the price of the dainty, ordered the steward to carry it from his table. Custis remembered how, on such occasions, faithful "black Sam," bound by every tie of regard to the chief—his daughter Phœbe having, during the war, as was believed, saved Washington's life by the exposure of a plot to poison him—with swelling heart and tearful eyes used to withdraw into an ante-room declaring that at any cost he would continue to keep up the credit of the house by "serving his Excellency's table as it ought to be." Judge Wingate's description of Washington's dinner of ceremony on the day following Mrs. Washington's

arrival in New York sets forth a frugal feast, the chief's own share of which was limited to the uninspiring diet of a slice of plain boiled mutton.

Another great ball was given in honor of the President on the following Thursday, by Count de Moustier, the French minister, at his house in Broadway. The Marchioness was heard to remark that she had exhausted every resource to produce an entertainment worthy of France. There was a cotillon danced in the military costumes of France and America. It is refreshing to read the words of Elias Boudinot, when he writes of this ball to his wife: "We retired about ten o'clock in the height of jollity." A bit of old brocade, worn at this ball by Mrs. Beekman, is still in the possession of her great-great-granddaughter in this city.

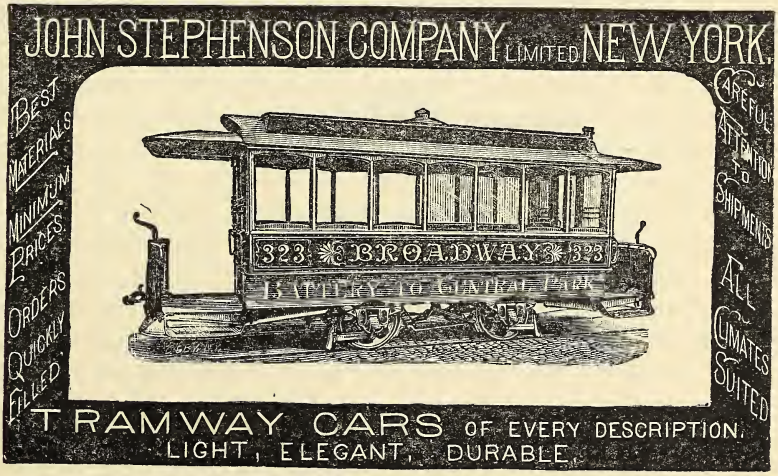
A list of persons invited by Mrs. John Jay to her entertainments during the two years preceding the inauguration, is now preserved by Mr. John Jay. This list may be regarded as a sort of Almanach de Gotha of the young Republic. Among Mrs. Jay's friends were Lady Catherine Duer and Lady Mary Watts, daughter of Lord Stirling; Mrs. Clinton, wife of the governor; Mrs. Montgomery; Mrs. Rutherfurd; Mrs. Cortlandt; Mrs. Kissam; Lady Christiana Griffen; Miss Van Berckel, the pretty daughter of the Dutch minister; Mrs. Ralph Izard; Mrs. Abigail Adams Smith; the Rensselaers; the Livingstons; Mrs. John Langdon; Madame de la Forest; Mrs. Rufus King; Mrs. Elbridge Gerry; Mrs. John Kean, born Susan Livingston, grandmother of the late Mrs. Hamilton Fish; Mrs. Thomson, wife of the venerable Secretary of Congress; the admirable Mrs. Alexander Hamilton, and Lady Temple, formerly Miss Bowdoin, of Massachusetts.

Of a fine afternoon President Washington was often seen, with the rest of the upper classes, taking his walk upon the Battery, his tall commanding form, the secretaries walking a little back of him, everywhere recognized by people who stood silently aside, as if to give passage to a king. For, despite his efforts towards republican simplicity, Washington's Old World ideas of ceremonial fitted him like a glove. He could no more brook familiarity than could his associates presume to offer it. Other walks were in the sequestered region now between Astor Place and Ninth street.

"In those days [writes a correspondent of the "New Mirror," styling himself "The Last of the White Cravats"] a young buck put on his spencer, hat, and gloves, and, stick in hand, set out from Bowling Green after dinner, for a walk as far as old Captain Randall's

octagon country-seat, perched on a high hill, with nothing else in view (now Broadway and Eighth street), reaching home about the time the muffin-man took his basket off his shoulders, and rang his bell for tea." This was the same gentleman to whom we are indebted for the account of "a party at the Misses White's," those "ladies so gay, so fashionable, with such elegant figures, who lived in a yellow two-story house next door but one to William street." At this party, whither he was accompanied by "Sir William Temple and Harry Remsen," White Cravat describes his own attire: "A light-blue French coat, high collar, large gilt buttons, double-breasted Marseilles vest, nankin colored cassimere breeches, shining pumps, large ruffles, a ponderous white cravat with a 'pudding' in it—and I was considered the best-dressed gentleman in the room. I remember to have walked a minuet with much grace with my friend, Mrs. Verplanck, who was dressed in hoop and petticoats; and, singularly enough, I caught cold that night from drinking hot port-wine negus and riding home in a sedan chair with one of the glasses broken."

The change for General Washington, even to such society as New York afforded, from Mount Vernon, was a marked one. By a glance in retrospect at his life in the old homestead, we may get some idea



of what the change was. A description of the place is taken from the privately printed diary of Amariah Frost, of Massachusetts, who visited Washington in 1787. "We arrived at the President's seat about ten o'clock. The General was out on horseback viewing his laborers at harvest ; we were desired to tarry until he should return. . . . We had rum punch brought us by a servant. We viewed the gardens and walks, which are very elegant, abounding with many curiosities. Fig-trees, raisins, limes, oranges, etc., large English mulberries, artichokes, etc. The President returned ; he received us very politely. . . His lady also came in and conversed with us very familiarly respecting Boston, Cambridge, the officers of the army, etc. The son of the Marquis de La Fayette also came into the room where we sat, which was a large entry, and conversed some. . . The President came and desired us to walk in to dinner. We then walked into a room where were Mrs. Law, Mrs. Peters and a young lady, all granddaughters of Mrs. Washington. The President directed us where to sit (no grace was said). Mrs. Washington sat at the head, the President next to her at her right. . . The dinner was very good—a small roasted pigg, boiled leg of lamb, beef, peas, lettice, cucumbers, artichokes, etc., puddings, tarts, etc. We were desired to call for what drink we chose. He took a glass of wine with Mrs. Law first, which example was followed by Dr. Croker and Mrs. Washington, myself and Mrs. Peters, Mr. Fayette and the young lady, whose name is Custis. When the cloth was taken away the President gave 'All our Friends.' He spoke of the improvements made in the United States. . . We conversed also respecting his return by the way of Lexington across the country ; . . enquired if I knew Mr. Taft's family, where he put up that night ; whether the old gentleman was alive, and added that he was much pleased with the conduct of his daughters, particularly the eldest, which he said appeared to have superior sense and knowledge for one educated in such a country village at a tavern. She appeared to understand considerable of geography, etc.; that she was a very sensible and modest person. Enquired if she was married. I informed him she was. He hoped she was well married. I answered that I believed she was well married, and that it was to a person of education who was a clergyman. . . Much more was said, but nothing respecting our present politicks."

Some conception of Washington's ideas on the subject of dress may be gathered from a letter of the great man to his nephew, aged sixteen years, and still at school. It bears the date of March 23, 1789, and reads in part as follows :

"As it is probable I shall soon be under the necessity of quitting this place, and entering once more into the bustle of publick life, in conformity to the voice of my country and the earnest entreaties of my friends, however contrary it is to my own desires or inclinations, I think it incumbent on me, as your uncle and friend, to give you some advisory hints, which, if properly attended to, will, I conceive, be found very useful to you in regulating your conduct and giving you respectability not only at present but through every period of life. You have now arrived to that age when you must quit the trifling amusements of a boy, and assume the more dignified manners of a man. At this crisis your conduct will attract the notice of those who are about you; and as the first impressions are generally the most lasting your doings now may make the leading traits of your character through life. It is therefore absolutely necessary, if you mean to make any figure upon the stage, that you should take the first steps right. What these steps are, and what general line is to be pursued to lay the foundation of an honorable and happy progress, is the part of age and experience to point out. This I shall do, as far as in my power, with the utmost chearfulness; and I trust that your own good sense will shew you the necessity of following it. The first and great object with you at present is to acquire, by industry and application, such knowledge as your situation enables you to obtain, and as will be useful to you in life. In doing this two other important objects will be gained besides the acquisition of knowledge, —namely, a habit of industry, and a disrelish of that profusion of money and dissipation of time which are ever attendant upon idleness. I do not mean by a close application to your studies that you should never enter into those amusements which are suited to your age and station. They may go hand in hand with each other, and, used in their proper seasons, will ever be found to be a mutual assistance to each other. But what amusements are to be taken, and when, is the great matter to be attended to. Your own judgment, with the advice of your *real* friends who may have an opportunity of a personal intercourse with you, can point out the particular manner in which you may *best* spend your moments of relaxation, much better than I can at a distance. One thing, however, I would strongly impress upon you, viz., that when you have leisure to go into company, that it should always be of the best kind that the place you are in will afford. By this means you will be constantly improving your manners and cultivating your mind while you are relaxing from your books; and good company will always be found much less expensive than bad.

You cannot offer as an excuse for not using it that you cannot gain admission there, or that you have not a proper attention paid you in it. This is an apology made only by those whose manners are disgusting or whose character is exceptionable ; neither of which, I hope, will ever be said of you. I cannot enjoin too strongly upon you a due observance of economy and frugality ; as you well know yourself, the present state of your property and finances will not admit of any unnecessary expense. The article of clothing is now one of the chief expenses you will incur ; and in this, I fear, you are not so economical as you should be. Decency and cleanliness will always be the first object in the dress of a judicious and sensible man. A comformity to the prevailing fashion in a certain degree is necessary—but it does not follow from thence that a man should always get a new coat, or other clothes, upon every trifling change in the mode, when perhaps he has two or three very good ones by him. A person who is anxious to become a leader of the fashion, or one of the first to follow it, will certainly appear in the eyes of judicious men to have nothing better than a frequent change of dress to recommend him to notice. I should always wish you to appear sufficiently decent to entitle you to admission into any company where you may be—but I cannot too strongly enjoin it upon you, and your own knowledge must convince you of the truth of it, that you should be as little expensive in this respect as you properly can. You should always keep some clothes to wear to church, or on particular occasions, which should not be worne every day. This can be done without any additional expense ; for whenever it is necessary to get new clothes, those which have been kept for particular occasions will come in as every day ones, unless they should be of a superior quality to the new. What I have said with respect to clothes will apply, perhaps, more pointedly to Lawrence than to you—and as you are much older than he is, and more capable of judging of the propriety of what I have here observed, you must pay attention to him, in this respect, and see that he does not wear his clothes improperly or extravagantly."

But Washington was a man who could adapt himself to any circumstances, and in New York he conformed to the ideas of New Yorkers. There, as at Mount Vernon, he was the simple, unaffected gentleman at all times. The truly great man is rarely anything else.

CHAPTER XXX.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN 1789—NEW YORK A HUNDRED YEARS AGO.

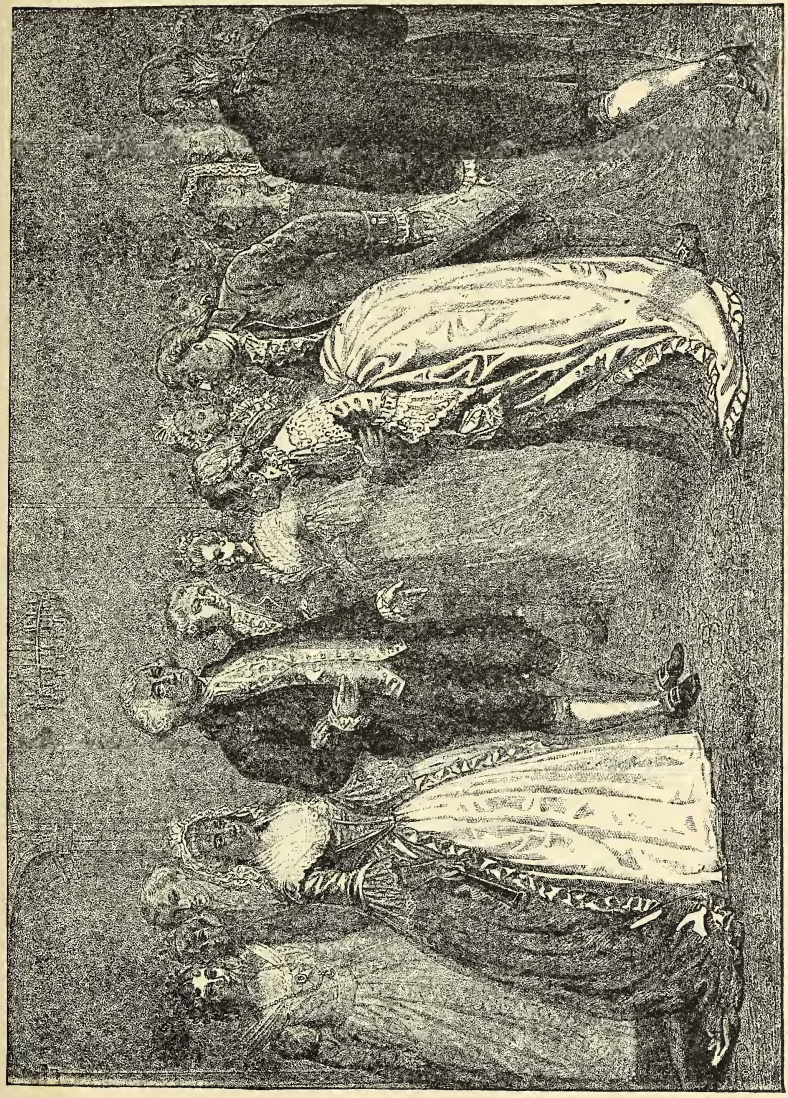
We have touched on some of the phases of social life in the metropolis of a hundred years ago. Let us now take a look at the general aspects of New York at that date in order to trace its development since.

The city at that time had a population of between twenty and twenty-five thousand—a mere speck on the island compared with the great metropolis, densely crowded, as it is now, with two million five hundred thousand or more people. The limit of the city proper was near Chambers Street, or about a mile from the Battery, the lower extremity as it exists at the present time. Above Chambers Street the country was undulating and hilly, and covered with farms and cow-pastures. Scattered from river to river all the way to Harlem and Kingsbridge were cottages, houses, and picturesque country seats of wealthy citizens. The old "Boston Post Road" ran eastward from Madison Square, and thence, in a circuitous route, to Harlem, where it terminated. The "Bowery Lane," out of which our present Bowery grew, ran, part of the way up town, under the name of the "Bloomingdale Road," to Kingsbridge, whence there was a highway to Albany. From the "Bloomingdale Road," "Love Lane" (now Twenty-first Street) ran westward to the North River. Along Chambers Street were numerous barracks left practically as they were during the Revolution. But they were remodeled somewhat, and leased as dwellings by the corporation of the city, which owned them. These barracks were built during the French War, of logs, about one story high, with gable roofs. They were inclosed by a wall, with a gate at each end. From the eastern end, familiarly known as "Tryon's Gate," was derived the name of the present Tryon Row, which is opposite the entrance to the great East River Bridge. Broadway, above the location of the City Hall Park, was known as St. George Country Road, but below that point it always bore its present name. On this road, at Canal Street, there was a stone bridge over a canal, from which that thoroughfare took its name. At one time a project was on foot to enlarge and deepen the canal to enable vessels to pass

from river to river, but this was abandoned, and the stream was afterward filled up. This location, which to-day is probably as low as any part of the city, was surrounded by marshy lands that bred fever and ague among the inhabitants. A fresh-water pond, known as the "Collect," sparkled where the dismal Tombs Prison is now standing. This pond, in winter, was the popular resort of skaters, whose sport on the ice was witnessed daily by hundreds of spectators who gathered on the slope existing to-day from Broadway to Centre Street. Near the junction of Park Row (formerly Chatham Street) and Roosevelt street there was a bubbling spring as clear as crystal. The celebrated "tea-water pump," that helped to supply the city with pure drinking-water, was also located here. Various wells were found in the lower section of the city, but they furnished brackish water that was too unwholesome for the table. North of where Chambers Street now is, was the Commons, a small uninclosed park, which was rendered famous as the scene of political meetings and demonstrations. On the other side of Chambers Street were the Bridewell and Provost jails, the Alms-House, and House of Correction. The Bridewell stood at the west end of our City Hall Park. Between it and the Alms-House was the public scaffold. The City Hospital was in a "five-acre lot," surrounded by a fence on the road near Reade Street. This was a three-story brick building with a gable roof and a high cupola.

The thickest settled portion of the city did not extend beyond Vesey Street. Upon the northeast corner of this street and Broadway, where the Astor House stands, was a double brick two-story house, with a gable roof and dormer windows, while on the opposite corner was the ancient St. Paul's Chapel. Hanover Square was considered the commercial district. All the large principal stores and other business establishments were centered here, but there were some private houses and mansions, the homes of merchants, in the same neighborhood.

One of the most conspicuous public buildings was Fraunces' Tavern, or "Black Sam's Tavern," so called on account of the swarthy complexion of Samuel Fraunces, the proprietor. This was rendered famous, at the time and in the history of America, by Washington, who occupied it as his headquarters during the Revolution, and as the place where, on December 4, 1783, he took final leave of his officers and comrades-in-arms. This memorable structure, or the lower portion of it, stands intact on the corner of Pearl (then Queen Street) and Broad Streets. It is made of Holland brick. A



PRESIDENTIAL RECEPTION IN NEW YORK (1789).
(From cut published by Currier & Ives.)

century ago it was a two-story building, with a gable roof and dormer windows. Two stories were added to it, but the two lower floors are in substantially the same shape as when occupied by Washington. There is a weather-beaten sign reading "Washington's Headquarters" over the main entrance.

Among the other public houses in New York at the time was one near the old "Fly Market," which, in 1822, gave way to Fulton Market; Smith's Tavern, in the same neighborhood; the Macomb House, that afterward became the Presidential Mansion, on Broadway, near Wall street, and the Bull's Head Hotel in the Bowery Lane. The Bull's Head was a two-story, gable-roofed country tavern surrounded by cattle-pens. Coffee and tea-houses were numerous and popular in various parts of the city. There was one theatre, which was in John Street. It was erected during the occupation of the city by the British, and was used by the army officers and others for amateur theatricals. After his inauguration, Washington and some of the public men of the time attended performances at this theater. The custom-house was in the Government building erected on the site of the old fort, which was located on Bowling Green. The post-office was kept in the postmaster's house in William Street. One room, twenty-five by thirty-five feet, and containing about one hundred boxes, was where the mail was distributed. Sebastian Bauman, the first postmaster of the city subsequent to the Revolution, was appointed by Washington. This post-office was enlarged to accommodate the demands of the increasing population, but it remained in the same place until 1827, when it was removed to Wall Street. At the foot of Park Place was the venerable Columbia College. There were several churches in the city, and the religious sentiment predominated largely in the daily life of its inhabitants. The Reformed Dutch Church was the prevailing denomination. The Episcopalian, the next oldest denomination, was introduced soon after the cession of the city to the English. The ancient Trinity Church belonged to this class. It was built in 1696, enlarged in 1737, destroyed by fire in 1776, and rebuilt in 1788.

The Beekman House, lately removed from the corner of Fiftieth Street and First Avenue, was "way out in the country." During the occupation of New York by the British, Lord Howe selected this house for his headquarters, and here the patriot Nathan Hale was sentenced to be hanged as a spy. On leaving, the family had hastily buried valuable silver and china in the garden, but some of Mrs. Beekman's gowns, etc., were left hanging in her wardrobe. These

Lord Howe himself locked up, handing the key to a servant who had remained. When Mrs. Beekman returned, a few years afterwards, she found everything as she had left it, and some of her possessions thus preserved have descended to the daughters of her line, together with Chelsea and Bow shepherdesses that spent the years of British occupation under-ground. Here pretty Mrs. James Beekman served President Washington with lemonade made of fruit gathered in his presence from her famous lemon-trees. Near the Beekman house, sometimes called "The Mount," Hale is said to have hanged upon a butternut tree, that marked the fifth mile from Whitehall. The house was occupied in 1780 as headquarters by Baron Riedesel, whose wife described it as a delightful residence. There André passed his last night in New York. This old landmark was demolished about 1874, and its drawing-room mantelpiece, set with blue Dutch tiles, may be seen at the rooms of the Historical Society, in Second Avenue, New York. The Kennedy house, at No. 1 Broadway, was built by a captain in the Royal Navy, who married a member of the De Peyster family and became afterwards eleventh Earl of Cassilis. The De Peyster house in Pearl Street, a substantial dwelling built of stuccoed brick, is better known as Washington's headquarters in the Revolutionary War. The Murray house, called Belmont, on the "Middle Road," now Fifth Avenue and Thirty-seventh Street (hence Murray Hill), was screened from view by groves and Avenues, and surrounded by famous gardens. At Thirty-fourth Street and Second Avenue stood the Kip mansion, near which were the country-seats of the Wattses and the Keteltases. Far away in the remote country, the English manor-house of Colonel Thorne was built, in the present region of Ninth Avenue and Ninety-second street.

Of the old Rutgers house, situated near Fifth Avenue and Thirty-ninth Street, we read an amusing story of a wedding-party in 1788. One of the guests, a gentleman who was to take a packet sailing for Wilmington at daylight, remained at the house till the unprecedented hour of 11 o'clock at night, then, with a servant to show him the way through an adjacent huckleberry swamp, set forth to reach his lodgings; but losing the path, and the moon going down, he wandered all night amid thorns and briers, emerging at dawn with his clothes nearly torn off.

A favorite driveled along Second Avenue, where, over a tell-tale little brook that listened and then ran away to blab to the East River, at our present Fifty-fourth Street, was the Kissing Bridge. At this

point the etiquette of Gotham's forefathers exacted of the gentlemen driving the "Italian chaise," or sleigh of highest fashion, "a salute to the lady who had put herself under his protection!" The "fourteen-mile round," mentioned in the diary of Washington as the extent of his "exercise with Mrs. Washington and the children in the coach between breakfast and dinner," followed the "Old Boston road" to McGowan's Pass. Thence the horses turned into the Bloomingdale road, skirting the Hudson, where a friend's house, here and there, invited to rest and sangaree. Sometimes Mrs. Washington's coach took the easterly direction, to the old Morrisania house, where Colonel and Mrs. Lewis Morris (Miss Elliot, of South Carolina) lived, their windows looking upon the boisterous cross-currents of the Harlem Kills.

It is an historic spot. What the hallowed rock at Plymouth is to the descendants of the Puritans who stepped from the Mayflower onto American soil, the Battery is to the surviving representatives of the Knickerbockers, the Van Rensselaers, and the other Dutch founders of the New Amsterdam, for here it was that the pioneer settlers

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first touched the soil of Manhattan and made acquaintance with the Indians then in possession. The extreme point of the Battery was then a small island separated from the mainland, and the intervening space was filled up and given the solid appearance it now presents. Here the first Dutch settlers erected, in 1614, four houses and a small fort, and in 1689, when the insurrection broke out against the administration of Nicholls, the representative of the Duke of York, the fort was strengthened by a battery of six guns outside its walls. This was the origin of the "Battery," a name which has ever since clung to it, and probably will for all time. The Battery of to-day, with its twenty-one acres of park land, studded with trees, its verdant lawns intersected with serpentine walks, and its fine promenade around the substantial sea-wall, is not reverenced by the patriotic New Yorker merely as the Plymouth Rock of his fathers, but as a spot associated with incidents and indissolubly bound up with the early history of this favored land, with the struggles of its people against foreign dominion, and as the "Golden Gate" of the "City of Refuge" for the downtrodden and oppressed of the despotic powers of Europe. Hereabouts America's first aristocracy built their substantial mansions, and ere commerce began to make an advance upon it and its immediate surroundings, it was truly a delightful location in which to dwell, for from here, as one looked down the shining bay, the view was enchanting even to the most unpoetical and the indifferent to nature's charms. Then the sunsets, as seen from here, were, as they are now, full of rare splendor. Professor von Raumer was enraptured with the view fromhere, and he likened the Battery to the Piazetta at Venice. M. Ampère declared that the sunsets seen from here could only be rivalled in the Valley of the Nile; and Harriet Martineau saw "a sunset which, if seen in England, would pursuade the nation that the end of the world was come." To-day, bustling as the Battery is with activity, it is deserving of a visit from the pleasure-seeker, who will meet with a scene that cannot fail to make a lasting impression upon his memory. The rippling waters of the Bay, shining with sunbeams, seem to be fairly alive as they dance along the surface, while the waterway is crowded with stately steamers going and coming from foreign shores, drawn by little puffing tugs, and with crafts of every conceivable shape and size, from a ponderous man-of-war to a gayly-rigged little sail-boat. In the memorable struggle for independence, the British frigates Rose and Phœnix, with their decks protected by sand-bags, ran, in July, 1776, by the roaring Battery and up the Hudson, firing broadsides onto the city.

When the struggle was over, and Great Britain acknowledged the independence of that which had been the brightest colonial jewel in her crown, it was from the Battery, on November 25, 1783—a day still celebrated as Evacuation Day—that the British soldiers, under the command of Sir Guy Carleton, embarked for their own dominions.

CHAPTER XXXI.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN 1798—OLD WALL STREET.

THE history of Wall Street embaces the history of the United States. Within its busy boundaries, where for more than a century have resounded the echoes of a nation's industries, have occurred



events that have left a deep and lasting impression on American affairs. In the year 1700 Wall Street was regarded as the central

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portion of the then small, but growing, city of New York. The wildest hopes of the staid old inhabitants of Manhattan Isle in those days of "ye olden time" never foreshadowed the city's present greatness and prosperity. In the year 1642 an unpretentious but substantial structure was erected at the head of Coenties Slip, and christened by its Knickerbocker builders the "Stadt Huys." It served for the municipal needs of the city until the year 1700, when it became necessary, in view of the increasing growth of the town, and the exigencies growing out of the Revolutionary War, to erect a more commodious building. The shrewd old Knickerbockers fondly hoped to make their city the seat of the new government that they felt sure would evolve from the gallant efforts of Washington and his compatriots in their long and discouraging struggle against the domination of England. With this object in view, the Common Council voted to abandon the "Stadt Huys" for larger and more central quarters. The sum of £3,000, or about $14,000 in American money at that time, was apportioned by the Council for the new structure, in addition to the £930 received from an old merchant, named John Rodman, for the old "Stadt Huys." These sums proved sufficient for the construction of the new edifice, and a site was selected at the head of Broad Street, fronting Wall Street, which at that time was occupied by the stone bastions or wooden palisade which had been built across Manhattan Island for defensive purposes. It was from this ancient

THE long and intimate relations which have existed between the public and the house of Brown Brothers & Co., Bankers, 59 Wall Street, will be a sufficient reason for the introduction of the following brief sketch of that house in a work of this character:

Mr. Alexander Brown, the father of William, George, John A., and James, the original brothers, came to this country from Ballymena, Ireland, and settled in Baltimore in 1798, and in 1809, in connection with his sons, he founded the firm of Alexander Brown & Sons, which still exists in that city.

In 1813, or thereabouts, his eldest son, William (afterwards Sir William Brown), opened the house of William & James Brown & Co., in Liverpool, which eventually became the firm of Brown, Shipley & Co. The munificence of the late Sir William Brown in the cause of education and science, has left an imperishable memory in his gift to the city of Liverpool of Brown's Library and Museum. The London house of Brown, Shipley & Co., was opened in England in 1864.

Some time after the war of 1812 John A. Brown, the third son,

palisade that Wall Street derived its name. The new City Hall was built in less than twelve months, and, on its completion, was immediately occupied by the city government. Contemporary history relates that: "So frugal were the members of the Common Council that they used the stone of the bastion in constructing their new hall. Its lower floor formed an open arcade over the foot pavement, and the front was embellished with the arms of the King and those of the Earl of Bellamount. These heraldic ornaments were defaced and destroyed, immediately after the close of the Revolution, by formal vote of the Common Council. When the Declaration of Independence was issued in 1776, the document was read to the people from the entrance of this City Hall, and the painted coat of arms that hung on the wall of the main room, was brought out and thrown into the bon-fire ignited by the citizens in celebration of the event. During the Revolution, when the city was held by the British troops, they occupied this City Hall as general headquarters, and the main guard had its rendezvous there. While in occupation, the handsome library was ruthlessly plundered by the soldiers, and it is said that many valuable books were used in the manufacture of cartridges.

"Peace having been declared, this City Hall passed into the possession of Congress, and became known as the Federal Building. Extensive changes were made, which transformed it into a very hand-

opened a house in Philadelphia, which for a time was under the management of James Brown, who in 1826 moved to New York, and established the firm of Brown Brothers & Co., at No 63 Pine Street.

A curious feature in connection with the opening of the Philadelphia and New York houses is that it was due to the opening of the canals between the Chesapeake and New York Bays. When the canal from the Delaware to the Chesapeake was completed, the elder Brown foresaw the passing of the trade of Virginia and the Carolinas, which he had controlled, to Philadelphia and the North, and he then predispatched his son John to Philadelphia to establish a house there and catch this trade which might pass Baltimore. In like manner, when the Delaware and Raritan Canal was opened to New York the same motive impelled him to send James to New York to open a house there.

In 1838 the latter firm moved to No. 59 Wall Street, where they have been ever since, with the exception of two years, 1864–5, when the present building in Wall Street was in course of erection.

The firm of Brown Brothers & Co. have their houses in New

some and imposing structure. The basement was Tuscan, pierced with seven openings, massive pillars in the centre supporting four Doric columns and a pediment. The frieze was so divided as to admit thirteen stars in metopes. These, with the American eagle and other insignia, the tablets over the windows filled with the thirteen arrows and the olive-branches united, were considered sufficient to mark it as a building designated for national purposes."

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With the establishment of the seat of government in Wall Street, that thoroughfare jumped to a place of great importance in the minds of the people. Merchants, lawyers, and tradesmen of all sorts gravitated to it from different parts of the town, and it quickly became the centre of interest. Magnificent stores lined the street on both sides, and every day it was thronged with ladies in showy costumes, and gentlemen in silks, satins, and velvets of many colors. Handsome private residences at different points along the street contested with trade the right of location, and the merriment and gayety of many brilliant social events blended harmoniously with the hum and din of commerce. Not far from Broad Street, toward the East River, resided John Lamb, the first Collector of the Port of New York under Washington, and Mr. Guilian Verplanck, one of the first candidates for Mayor of the city under the new system of election by popular ballot.

Here and there, at intervals, were other beautiful residences, occupied by families whose names are historic in American annals. The daily sessions of Congress at the corner of Broad and Wall formed a

York, Philadelphia, Boston and London, and are represented in Baltimore by the original firm of Alexander Brown & Sons, and there is an agent representing the house at New Orleans.

The well-known prudent and conservative management of this house has carried it successfully through all the financial troubles which have occurred in this country during the present century, and it stands to-day, not only at home but abroad, worthy alike of the associations belonging to the name and of the nation.

Mr. James M. Brown of this firm, has been an active member of the Finance Committee of this celebration, and we venture to predict that when the Bi-Centennial takes place (100 years hence), the city will have to be under obligations to another representative of Brown Brothers & Co.


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pervading topic of interest, as well as a fruitful source of dignified gossip. The deliberations of Congress were pregnant with matters of vital moment to the young and inexperienced nation, and the minds of the people alternated between hope and fear—hope that wisdom might prevail in the councils of the law-makers, and fear that rashness might lead them into some error of judgment which would undo the results of their glorious struggle against England. But the helm of government was in prudent hands. The discussions which took place daily in Congress involved grave questions necessary for the preservation of peace with the various nations of Europe. In this historic Congress the first ambassador was chosen for Great Britain. Here, too, Thomas Jefferson was elected Minister to France, and here, too, one chilly day late in the autumn of 1785, Sir John Temple, the first consul-general to the United States, from George III., was received with great honors and a generous welcome. As time passed on, Wall Street gradually took on the character of a strictly business thoroughfare, and the exigencies of trade forced many of the old residents to other quarters of the city.

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Aaron Burr, ever restless, ever scheming, always ambitious, was

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—69— WALL ST.

Statement—United States Branch.

INCOME, 1888.

Premiums,	$839,562	—13
Interest,	50,825	
Total,	$890,387	
Assets, 1st January, 1889,		$1.593,044
Liabilities,		686,434
Surplus,		$906,610

GEORGE H. MARKS, Manager.

the first pioneer in the establishment of Wall Street as a great financial centre. He hungered for power and position in the affairs of the new nation. He realized that then, as well as now, money was an important factor in governmental matters, and conceived a bold scheme by which he might attain a commanding position in financial affairs. He had viewed Alexander Hamilton's popularity with the people and his intimacy with Washington with jealousy, and attributed these facts to Hamilton's control of the monetary affairs of the country, as Secretary of the Treasury.

There were at that time only two banks of any importance in the country: one a branch of the United States bank, located in Philadelphia, the other, the Bank of the City of New York. Both were, to a considerable degree, the creation of Hamilton's financial genius, and both were charged by his enemies, instigated by Burr, with being influenced in their discounts by political considerations. Burr determined to found a bank which should equally accommodate the opposition to the Federalists, of whom Washington and Hamilton were the acknowledged leaders. But a chronic prejudice in the public mind against banks, made Burr's projected enterprise difficult to

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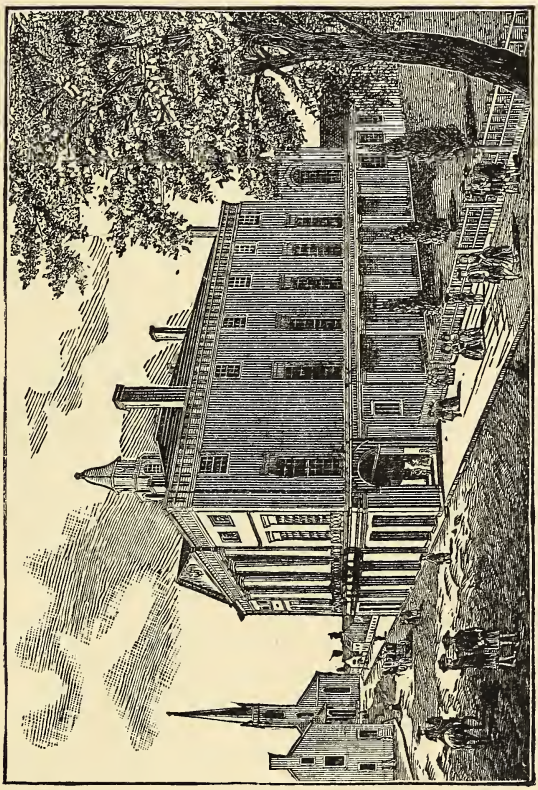
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accomplish. Taking advantage, with characteristic cunning, of the investigations then being made of the causes of the terrible ravages of yellow fever in the city, and of the impression that the brackish wells contributed largely to the spread of the pestilence, Burr adroitly organized a company for the ostensible purpose of supplying the city with pure and wholesome water, but which he cunningly stipulated was to use and exercise all the privileges of a bank. By assiduous canvassing among his partisans, who were unfriendly to Hamilton, he succeeded in raising the sum of two million dollars, and an organization was formed under the name of the Manhattan Company, which was merely a disguise for the Manhattan Bank. The new company, or more correctly the new bank, had its headquarters near the head of Wall Street, a short distance from Broadway. The intense rivalries, bickering, and quarrels, which finally ended in Hamilton's tragic death at the hands of Burr, in the Elysian Felds, near Hoboken, are all thought to have had their origin in this bank. Burr, however despicable his character may have been, had that rare quality of magnetism in a remarkable degree, and attracted many men of great financial ability to him, and gradually they settled about him as neighbors in Wall Street, engaging in business as brokers and lenders, until Wall Street began to take on the nature of a monetary centre in city and national affairs. Here, in those days of comparatively small things, was laid the basis of many great fortunes, which have contributed largely in the development of the country.

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From a small beginning, the " Street" grew into a mighty power in the affairs of commerce, both at home and abroad. The Stock Exchange originated in 1792, when the originators, a little company of brainy, progressive men, alive to the possibilities of the future, formed the association under a buttonwood-tree in front of what is now known as No. 60 Wall Street. This Stock Exchange, so inauspiciously begun, has played a mighty part in the history of the nation. It is worthy of note, right here, that the Stock Exchange during the Civil War, for the purpose of assisting the Government, passed a resolution prohibiting members from selling Government bonds " short," and also a resolution forbidding all dealings in gold. The latter resolution was the principal cause of the formation of the Gold Exchange. This action on the part of the Stock Exchange was taken at the pecuniary loss of many millions of dollars, the sacrifice having been made for the highest and noblest of patriotic purposes;



WALL STREET IN 1789.

yet, in the face of such an historic record as this, which is but one of many to the credit of the financiers doing business in Wall Street, some people believe that the members of the different Exchanges in and about Wall Street never have been anything else but a selfish and soulless lot of money-grabbers. This idea has been fostered by sensational preachers and editors, whose only ground for their misrepresentations lies in their benighted imaginations. Wall Street has become a necessity as a healthy stimulant to the rest of the business of the country. Everything looks to this centre as an index to the prosperity of the United States. It moves the money that controls the world. Take the Clearing House, for instance, with its fifty billions of transactions annually. All but a fraction of this wonderful wealth, compared with which the stupendous pile of Crœsus was a mere pittance, passes through Wall Street, continually adding to its mighty power, in comparison with which the influence of monarchies is weak, but, unlike the riches of these, is not concentrated chiefly in itself: it is imparted to all the industries and productive forces of the country. Wall Street is a great distributer. It has furnished the money that has set in motion the wheels of industry, and brought us abreast, in the industrial arts, of countries that had from one to two thousand years the start of us. True, there have been serious financial disturbances which have had their origin in the "Street," but their history will prove that they have been individual in their effects rather than national. It is equally true that Wall Street has, at various critical periods in the finances of the country, stepped into the breach and tided over grave monetary disturbances, whose results no one could foretell.

CHAPTER XXXII.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN 1789—DEVELOPMENT OF THE MODERN NEW YORK.

LITTLE by little the immense commercial advantages of New York City's location have made themselves felt in the development of the metropolis since 1789. They have been ably supplemented by the always catholic and friendly sentiment of the people toward newcomers from any part of the world. This was inherited from the old Dutch settlers, and distinguished the city from both Boston and Philadelphia. A man of any nationality was welcomed here if he chanced to have enterprise and thrift. The same was not true of any one of the other great cities of America.

The harbor has been pronounced by travellers who have visited all parts of the globe to be one of the most beautiful in the world, and to have but one successful rival on the Atlantic ocean—the harbor of Rio de Janeiro. The harbor of New York consists of two bays, known as the Lower New York Bay and New York Bay. The Lower Bay opens directly into the ocean, and is formed by Sandy Hook and its bar. It is eighteen miles from the city, and may be crossed by two deep ship-canals from twenty-one to thirty-two feet deep at ebb tide, and from twenty-seven to thirty-nine feet at the flood, thus admitting ships of the greatest draft. From this bay the harbor proper—New York Bay—is entered by the magnificent gateway of the Narrows, formed by the approach of the opposite shores of Staten Island and Long Island to within a mile of each other. Nature in one of her bountiful moods formed here a gateway through which no hostile fleet can pass that is not impregnable to shot and shell. On the Long Island side are Fort Lafayette, on a reef of rocks 200 yards from the shore, and the far-reaching outworks of Fort Hamilton with its hundred guns, many of which are capable of throwing shot weighing a thousand pounds against the side of a ship. On the western, or Staten Island, shore are Forts Wadsworth (formerly called Richmond) and Tompkins, the latter located on the heights, and the former on the water's edge. Wadsworth is the second strongest fort in the Union, and it can sweep the whole strait with its guns. To pass up through the bays to New York City from the ocean a hostile fleet would find it no pleasurable picnic. The cannonade of the lunette and redoubts on Sandy Hook would be first encountered, next

the missiles of 400 pieces of heavy artillery at the Narrows, and after these the pounding of 300 guns on the forts of the inner harbor, to say nothing of the firing of the American fleet and the explosion of torpedoes that would line the narrow channel. New York Bay is from one and a half to five and a half miles broad,—averaging three miles, —eight miles long, and about twenty-five miles in periphery, forming a basin of capacity sufficient to receive the navies of the world. This bay communicates with Newark Bay through the river Kill-von-Kull on the west, separating Staten Island and Bergen Point. From the inner harbor also stretch the Hudson and East Rivers. The inner defences of the harbor consist of batteries on Bedloe's and Ellis Islands, on the west side of the bay; and on Governor's Island, 3,200 feet from the city, are Fort Columbus, in the form of a star, commanding the south side of the channel; on the southwest point, Castle William, a round tower 600 feet in circuit and sixty feet high; and on the southwest side, South Battery, commanding the entrance through Buttermilk Channel. The entrance from the Sound to the East River is defended by Fort Schuyler on Throgg's Neck. Besides the defences mentioned, the whole of the surrounding heights of the bay could, in the case of war, be readily fortified, and Castle Garden and the Battery Esplanade would furnish ready-made sites for an extensive armament. No port in the world could be more easily placed in a condition of defence. The width of the North, or Hudson, River is one mile to Jersey City at the ferry, and one and a half miles to Hoboken. The width of the East River is from one-third to half a mile. At the South Ferry it is 1,300 yards, at Fulton Ferry 731 yards, and at Catharine Ferry 736 yards. Both the inner and outer harbors present enchanting views. The outer one is bounded with charming effect by the high wood-clad hills of Neversink, the popular beach resorts of the north New Jersey coast, and the summer cities on Coney Island. The inner harbor is rich in varied scenery, and, besides all the natural beauty of the location, there cannot be a finer spectacle than is presented in the great city spread before it, with its piers crowded with a forest of masts bearing the flags of all nations.

Two features attract the attention of the foreigner as he enters New York Harbor—the Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World, and the Brooklyn Bridge. The former stands on Bedloe's Island. It is the creation of M. Bartholdi, and is the gift of the French people to America. The cost was $250,000, and the gift was received on Bedloe's Island in June, 1885. Through the efforts of the New York

"World" over $100,000 were raised by subscription to provide the pedestal and to erect the statue thereon. The following are the dimensions of the great work :

	Ft.	In.
Height from base to torch	151	1
Foundation of pedestal to torch	305	6
Heel to top of head	111	6
Length of hand	16	5
Index-finger	8	0
Circumference at second joint	7	6
Size of finger-nail	13x10 in.	
Head from chin to cranium	17	3
Head thickness from ear to ear	10	0
Distance across the eye	2	6
Length of nose	4	6
Right arm, length	42	0
Right arm, greatest thickness	12	0
Thickness of waist	35	0
Width of mouth	3	0
Tablet, length	23	7
Tablet, width	13	7
Tablet, thickness	2	0
DIMENSIONS OF THE PEDESTAL.		
Height of pedestal	89	0
Square sides at base, each	62	0
Square sides at top, each	40	0
Grecian columns above base	72	8
DIMENSIONS OF THE FOUNDATIONS.		
Height of foundation	65	0
Square sides at bottom	91	0
Square sides at top	66	7

The statue weighs 450,000 pounds, or 225 tons. The bronze alone weighs 200,000 pounds. Forty persons can stand comfortably in the head, and the torch will hold twelve people. The total number of steps in the winding stairway which leads from the base of the foundation to the top of the torch is 403. From the ground to the top of the pedestal there are 195 steps. The number of steps in the statue, from the pedestal to the head, is 154, and the ladder leading up through the extended right arm to the torch has fifty-four rounds. The electric light in the inside of the torch lamp aggregates 50,000 candle-power, and at the base of the statue 30,000 candle-power, being 80,000 candle-power in all. The entire electrical plant is the gift of President Goff, of the American System. The entire cost of the work from beginning to end is estimated at $700,000. The Statue of Liberty is the tallest statue in the world.

Brooklyn Bridge is the greatest work in bridge-building the world has ever seen. The construction began in 1871, and the bridge was opened May 24, 1883, the total cost of the erection having been $15,000,000. The work was conceived by John A. Roebling, and it was built from his plans. In the progress of the work he had his foot crushed, lockjaw supervened, and he died. He was succeeded by his son, Colonel Washington A. Roebling, who, in the caissons, contracted a mysterious disease that had proved fatal to several workmen, and he was rendered a hopeless invalid. The bridge unites the cities of New York and Brooklyn. Its length is 5,989 feet, and its width eighty-nine feet. It is suspended from two massive piers, 287 feet high, by four steel-wire cables, each sixteen inches in diameter. In the centre of the bridge is an elevated promenade, on each side of which is a railroad-track for passenger-cars, propelled by a stationary engine. Outside of the railroad track, on each side, are the roadways for vehicles. From the under side of the bridge, in the centre, to the water, is 135 feet. The piers rest on caissons of yellow pine, iron and concrete, sunk in the bed of the river. There is wire enough used in the cables to stretch nearly two-thirds of the way around the world. Foot-passengers are charged one cent and railroad passengers three cents each. Last year the bridge was crossed by 27,436,707 persons, of whom 2,965,400 walked. The receipts were $755,690, the railroad taking in $673,580, the carriage-way $64,518, and the promenade $17,592.

The import and export trade of New York is larger—very much larger—than that of any other city in the world. In the fiscal year which included parts of 1879 and 1880 its foreign commerce was over $925,000,000. Liverpool is the only city in the universe which approximates these stupendous figures, yet the foreign commerce of that port during the year 1879 amounted to but $803,000,000, or $122,000,000 less than that of New York. There can be no question that New York is the pride of every community in the Republic. It is the Mecca to which all Americans wend as opportunities serve, where men of wealth and women of fashion congregate, and where inducements are offered to the diligent and thrifty of other lands to come and share in the free institutions and in the development of the resources of the Great Republic of the West. In this city are 100,000 buildings, 70,000 of which are located between Fifty-ninth Street and the Battery. Of these buildings 25,000 are used for business purposes and 77,000 for dwellings, and 140 are fire-proof. Not only in shipping but in manufactures New

York takes the lead, and Philadelphia occupies the second position in this respect. It appears from the census of 1880 that the value of articles manufactured in the city during the year was $472,926,437. There are 11,000 factories, one-fourth of which are engaged in making clothing, cigars, furniture, and in printing. Clothing establishments to the number of 950 produce annually clothing worth $78,000,000 ; 540 printing and publishing houses turn out yearly $24,000,000 worth of goods ; 761 factories produce cigars worth $18,000,000 ; and 300 factories make $10,000,000 worth of furniture. The city is eminently a cosmopolitan one, and its population includes the people of every clime, color, and tongue. According to the census of 1880 there were then in the city 1,206,299 inhabitants, of whom 727,629 were American-born, and 478,670 of foreign birth. Of these 198,595 were from Ireland, 29,767 from England, 8,683 from Scotland, and 929 from Wales. Natives of Germany numbered 153,482 ; Italy, 12,233 ; France, 9,910 ; Russia, 4,551 ; Spain, 669. There were 17,937 New-Jersey-born New Yorkers ; 11,055 from Pennsylvania ; 10,589 from Massachusetts ; and Chinese in strong force.

On the water-front of the Battery is Castle Garden, a quaint-looking old building, which for years has been the chief gateway through which millions of self-exiled Europeans have made their entrance into the New World, and become acquainted with the metropolis of the Great Republic of the earth. Castle Garden is a circular brick structure, with a history of its own. It was originally erected under the title of Castle Clinton, as a fortress, in 1807, by the National Government, who gave it to the city in 1823 ; subsequently it was converted into a summer-garden and opera-house ; hence its name Castle Garden. It has often been the scene of great civic "pomp and circumstance ;" within its walls warriors and statesmen, now historic personages, were wont to be banqueted and have their glories fulminated ; and within its gray interior the celebrated songsters of a past age discoursed sweet melody to the lovers of music. Here a great ball was held in 1824, in honor of the Marquis Lafayette ; here in 1832 President Andrew Jackson, and in 1843 was given popular receptions. It was made an emigrant depot in 1855.

Just east of the Battery is Whitehall, the terminus of numerous car lines, and the location of the Staten Island, South and Hamilton ferries. There, too, is the depot of the elevated railways, which extend in four lines, two on the eastern side and two on the western, the entire length of the city—of which more anon. Whitehall Street was the Winckel Straat (shop street) of the Dutch settlers, and it derived

its present name from a fifteen-gun battery which was erected at its foot in 1695. The great fire of 1776, which destroyed the greater part of New York, began near Whitehall Slip, and swept over the city on a strong south wind, while the angry British garrison bayoneted many of the citizens, and threw others, screeching, into the sea of flame. The Produce Exchange, an imposing building, is at the upper end of Whitehall street.

At the junction of Whitehall Street and Broadway, just beyond the Battery, is the Bowling Green, near which was the site of Fort Amsterdam, where the Dutch Governor dwelt, nearly two hundred and fifty years ago, and had under his control three hundred valiant soldiers from Holland. Here, too, was built the first colonial church. Bowling Green is a pretty, old-fashioned square, with a little oval park, filled with shade-trees, and containing in its centre a tired, weary-looking fountain. Surrounded, as Bowling Green now is, by ocean steamship offices, foreign consulates, etc., the spot is rich in historic associations. It was the principal aristocratic quarter of the city in its early days. On the site now occupied by Mr. Cyrus W. Field's Washington Building, No. 1 Broadway, Archibald Kennedy, the collector of the port, built in 1760, a large house, which successively became the headquarters of Lords Cornwallis and Howe, General Sir Henry Clinton, and General Washington, while Talleyrand made it his home during his stay in America. Benedict Arnold concocted his treasonable projects at No. 5 Broadway; and at No. 11, on the site of the Burgomaster Kruger's Dutch tavern, was General Gage's headquarters, in the old King's Arms Inn. But few of the old buildings facing on the Green, and which belonged to and were occupied by a past generation, now remain, but have given place to modern and more pretentious structures. The Green was a treaty-ground with the Indian, the parade for the Dutch soldiers, and it was also a cattle-market. It was fenced in, in 1770, and the iron posts of the fence were once surmounted by balls, which in the time of the Revolution were knocked off and used by the American artillery in their cannon. On the Green once stood an equestrian statue of George III., and in July, 1776, the people, while celebrating the Declaration of Independence, deliberately walked down in crowds to the Green, and there knocked over the statue of His Majesty. Subsequently it was melted, and it furnished material for forty-two thousand bullets, which were fired at the soldiers of Britain. South of the square, and on the site now occupied by six old-fashioned brick buildings, the first governor of the New Netherlands, Peter Minuit, who had bought

the Island of Manhattan from the Indians for twenty-four dollars, built Fort Amsterdam, a block house, surrounded by a cedar palisade. Seven years later, the fort was enlarged by Wouter Van Twiller, and he garrisoned it with one hundred and four soldiers; and still later the English took possession of it. The Bowling Green Block now occupying the site, and which was built in 1815, was preceded by a stately Ionic porticoed mansion, erected in 1790, for the presidential palace, and which became the official residence of Governor George Clinton and John Jay. At No. 39 Broadway the first European dwelling on Manhattan Island was erected in 1612, by Hendrick Christiansen, the agent of the Dutch fur-trading company, who raised here four small houses and a redoubt, the foundation of the present metropolis. An Indian killed him, and thus perpetrated the first murder recorded in the annals of New York. A very fine view of Bowling Green and Lower Broadway is given in these pages.

Broadway has its beginning at Battery Park and its ending at Central Park and Fifty-ninth Street. Its course is almost due south and north for a little less than four miles. On account of its centrality and directness it is touched by nearly every moving inhabitant of the city in his daily walks. If he is going from north to south, or *vice versa*, he prefers it to the other avenues, because it is straight, and its pavement is good; and if he is going from any quarter east to any quarter west, he must intersect it at some point in gaining his destination. The country visitor, coming from the New Jersey or Long Island ferries, feels secure when he reaches Broadway, and while he keeps to it he cannot go very far astray, no matter what his destination is. It is not only a channel of commercial traffic, but a favorite promenade of the idler and pleasure-seeker, and though the acquaintances of a man may be few, a walk up or down Broadway is sure to bring him in contact with somebody he knows.

This great thoroughfare, is, from its effluence, straight for nearly two miles, when, near Tenth Street, it turns slightly to the northwest, the sky-pointing gray spire of Grace Church marking the turning-point. At Fourteenth Street Broadway makes another deviation to the west, runs along one side of Union Square, and thence makes a straight course to its terminus at Central Park, crossing diagonally on the way, at Twenty-third Street, Fifth Avenue, and also touching the southwest corner of Madison Square, not so very long since the most genteel locality in New York, but now, like Union Square, and more "down-town" localities, becoming occupied by hotels and business houses.

The variety of architecture to be met with in every part of Broad-

way is extraordinary. Every material has been used in every style—brick, iron, glass, marble, granite, brown stone, yellow stone, wood, and stucco. Never was there such heterogeneous architecture as is here displayed, where the Gothic and the Greek, the Renaissance and Romanesque, are crowded side by side, but all in a manner harmonized by the distortions which the city architects of our country are compelled to devise that they may secure the three prime essentials in a modern building—light, air, and space. The modern structures are fine, imposing buildings, containing many floors. In the building of these iron is largely used, and long colonnaded facades, simulating marble or brown stone, are composed of iron castings, riveted together. Here and there are to be found small, modest dwellings of an early period, with old-fashioned dormer windows projecting from the upper stories, and modern plate-glass show-windows inserted in the lower story; but these grow fewer in number year by year, and more stately buildings supplant them. The cornice lines of Broadway are as much serrated as it is possible to imagine, and the effect is not at all satisfactory to an artistic eye. Sign-boards hang out in profusion, and flag-staffs rise from nearly every building. On a gala day, when all the patriotic bunting is unfolded, the view is more brilliant and ragged than ever. The colossal hotels on the great thoroughfare rival in luxury and comfort the most noted hostelries of London or Paris; the banks and insurance buildings, of marble, granite, and iron, are representative of the ancient and modern architecture of Europe, as well as of the "pure and unadulterated" American architecture; and the magnificent shops and warehouses have their fronts relieved by wide expanses of glass. All these follow each other in bewildering succession, many so high as to tire the neck of the pedestrian, who is interested in inspecting their facades from eaves to floor.

Fulton Street stretches from river to river. On the corner of Broadway and Fulton Street is the imposing ten-story "Evening Post" Building; and located at the foot of Fulton Street, in which can be seen more well-dressed men and women than in any thoroughfare off Broadway in down-town New York, is Fulton Market, built upon the site formerly occupied by a large number of dilapidated old wooden shanties. Fulton Market is one of the objects to which strangers are always desirous of paying visits, and it has two specialties—fish, which are sold on the northern or Beekman side of the building, and oysters, which are served in all styles on the southern and eastern sides. Two squares above Fulton Ferry, Fulton

Street, in the early part of this century, contained one of the most aristocratic and exclusive hostelries in the city. This was the United States Hotel, a portion of which, on the construction of the elevated railway across the street, was transformed into a railway station, the street space not admitting of the erection of a depot. Running from Fulton Market to Park Row is Beekman Street, crowded with extensive wholesale paper warehouses; and northward of Fulton Street, and extending from City Hall Park to the East River, is the district known as "The Swamp," the centre of the hide and leather trade of the metropolis. This appellation was acquired on account of the low situation of the land, which was formerly flooded at high tides. The thoroughfares in this region are narrow and short, and the air is redolent of salted hides and fresh sole-leather, mixed with the more aromatic smell of kid, morocco, and calf-skin, in which commodities a large trade is carried on. The approaches of the East River or Brooklyn Bridge (described elsewhere), skirt the Swamp on the north, and a wide thoroughfare, which has replaced the narrow Frankfort Street, runs parallel with these approaches.

In Vesey Street is the Mechanics and Traders' Exchange, and this thoroughfare, at the foot of which is Washington Market, is the habitat of butchers, fish dealers, hardware merchants, dealers in new and old clothes, and sidewalk merchants trading in anything and everything from blacking and rusty razors to broken crockery and fine-art goods. At the head of the street is St. Paul's Episcopal Church, a silent spectator of the struggling mass of humanity, vehicles, and horses below. St. Paul's, where Washington performed his religious devotions, was built as a chapel-of-ease to Trinity Church in 1764–66. The interior is quaint and old-fashioned in its fixtures and arrangements. At mid-aisle, on the Vesey Street side, the site of the pew of Washington is marked with his initials. The organ was brought from England long years ago. Dr. Auchmuty used to read prayers for the king, in the chancel, until the drummers of the American garrison beat him down with the long roll in the centre aisle. Among those buried in St. Paul's churchyard were Emmet and MacNeven, Irish patriots of '98; Gen. Richard Montgomery, the brave Irish-American, who was killed in storming Quebec; John Dixey, R.A., an Irish sculptor; Capt. Baron de Rahenan, of one of the old Hessian regiments; Col. the Sieur de Rochefontaine, of our Revolutionary army; John Lucas and Job Sumner, majors in the Georgia Line and Massachusetts Line; and Lieut.-Col. Beverly Robinson, the Loyalist, and other notabilities.

The Post-Office and United States Court Building is the most imposing of the public edifices in New York. The only materials used in its construction are iron, granite, brick, and glass. The granite was brought from Dix Island, Maine. It is a triangular building, in the Doric style of architecture, modified by the Renaissance. The north front of the building is 290 feet in length, the Broadway front 340 feet, and the Park Row front 320 feet in the clear. On each of these two fronts, however, there is an angle which, running back some distance, forms the entrance, looking down Broadway. The entire width of this front is 130 feet. These entering angles and projecting porticos give this front a very bold and striking appearance. The basement is devoted to sorting and making up the mail. The first floor is used as the receiving department, comprising the money order and registry office, stamp and envelope bureau, etc. On the second and third floors are the United States Court rooms, and the attic furnishes rooms for the janitor, watchman, etc. The building was finished and occupied in September, 1875, the cost of erection being nearly $7,000,000. Over 600,000,000 letters, newspapers, etc., annually pass through the office. The office yields a profit, annually, of nearly $3,000,000, and is the largest in the United States.

Adjoining the Post-Office are the City Hall Park, City Hall, Court-House, and other public buildings, an illustration of which we give herewith. The Park, which is bounded by Broadway, the Post-Office, Park Row, and Chambers Street, covers an area of eight acres. Before the Revolution this was an open field in the country, and was called the Vlachte, or Flats, by the ancient Dutch pioneers. It stood apart as commons, upon which the powder-house and poor-house were built. Great crowds used to assemble here to celebrate the king's birthday and other festivals. In 1776 the American army was drawn up on the Flats, in hollow squares of brigades, at evening, on July 9th, while the Declaration of Independence was read aloud by clear-voiced aides. A few months later, barracks were erected here for victorious British troops; and in 1861 other barracks, on the same site, sheltered the volunteer regiments ready to take part in the civil war.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN 1789—UPTOWN NEW YORK AT THE PRESENT DAY.

From Twenty-third street up to Fifty-ninth, the progress of development from a residence to a trade section is still going on. At Forty-second street the Grand Central Depot is the point at which all the railroads running north and east, with one of the great trunk line systems to the west, converge. It is a building worthy of the corporate development which is so distinctive a feature of American life.

Central Park, a magnificent oasis in the desert of noise and bustle characteristic of New York, extends from Fifty-ninth street to One Hundred and Tenth street. Its length is two and a half miles, and its breadth (from Fifth avenue to Eighth avenue) is half a mile. $15,000,000 has been spent in beautifying the 862 acres included in the park. More than 500,000 trees and shrubs have been planted there.

The American Museum of Natural History is on Manhattan Square, a kind of annex to the park, between Seventy-seventh and Eighty-first streets, and Eighth and Ninth avenues. The Museum was founded in 1869. The corner-stone of the building now occupied was laid by President Grant in 1874, and the Museum was opened in 1877 by President Hayes. It is a Gothic building of brick and granite, with several large and admirably arranged halls. Here are found the Powell collection of British Columbian objects, the Robert Bell collection from Hudson's Bay, the De Morgan collection of stone-age implements from the valley of the Somme, the Jesup collection of North American woods and building-stones, the James Hall collection in palæontology and geology, the Gay collection of shells, the Bailey collection of birds' nests and eggs, mounted mammalia, Indian dresses and weapons, Pacific Islanders' implements and weapons, 10,000 mounted birds, the Major Jones collection of Indian and mound-builders' antiquities from Georgia, the Porto Rico antiquities; mammoth, twenty-five feet high; several specimens of the extinct Australian bird, the moa, fifteen feet high; reptiles, fishes, corals,

minerals, etc. The collection is one of the largest and finest in the country. The library contains 12,000 scientific works. Many lectures are given here yearly for the teachers in the public schools, who come here to study these vast and interesting collections. New buildings are about to be added by the State. The museum is open free on Wednesdays, Thursdays, Fridays, and Saturdays. It is reached by the Sixth avenue Elevated Railroad to the Eighty-first street station, or by the Eighth avenue horse-cars.

One of the greatest attractions of the park is the Metropolitan Museum of Art, which is situated on the Fifth avenue side, opposite Eighty-third street. The portion erected, which is only one of a projected series of buildings, is 218 feet long and 95 broad, and is a handsome structure of red brick, with sandstone trimmings, in the Gothic style. The most important feature of this museum is the Di Cesnola collection of ancient art objects, exhumed in Cyprus, regarded by archæologists as the most remarkable of its kind in the world. There are also a number of loan collections of pottery, paintings, sculpture, arms, wood-carvings, etc., which amply reward the curiosity of the visitor. The picture-gallery of the museum, which stands within a few feet of the East Drive, contains some of the best samples of the old Dutch, Flemish, and Spanish masters to be found in America.

Standing on a knoll in the grounds adjoining the Metropolitan Museum—and on one of the most commanding situations in the park—is the Obelisk, which is about 1,500 years older than the companion obelisk on the Thames Embankment in London, and known as Cleopatra's Needle. The obelisk in Central Park was erected in the Temple of On, in Egypt, about 3,500 years ago, by Thotmes III., King of Egypt, and conqueror of Central Africa, Palestine, and Mesopotamia, with hieroglyphics illustrating his campaigns and titles, and those of his descendant, Rameses II. For many centuries it stood before the Temple of the Sun, at Heliopolis, and was removed during the reign of Tiberins to Alexandria, where it remained until 1877, when the Khedive, Ismail Pasha, presented it to the City of New York. It was skillfully transported hither by Lieut.-Com. Gorringe, U. S. N. The entire cost of its transportation and setting-up was borne by the late William H. Vanderbilt. It is of granite, 70 feet long, and weighs 200 tons. This noble monument was made before the siege of Troy, or the foundation of Rome, and while the Israelites were enslaved in Egypt.

On the other side of the park is the Lenox Library, a building of

Lockport limestone, in modern French architecture. The building occupies an area of 192 by 114 feet. It was a gift to the public by the late James Lenox, who was an indefatigable collector of literary and art treasures. Mr. Lenox built and equipped the library at a cost of $1,000,000. There has been much red-tapeism to go through before a person could get a look into the building, so that it was practically closed to the public. This has lately been changed, and the library made free and accessible. The building has two wings. In the south wing is the library, containing precious *incunabulæ*, a perfect Mazarin Bible, printed by Gutenberg and Faust in 1450, and the oldest of printed books ; Latin Bibles printed at Mayence in 1462 (by Faust and Schöffer), and at Nuremberg in 1477 (with many notes in Melancthon's handwriting); seven fine Caxtons ; block-books ; five of Eliot's Indian Bibles ; "The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye" (Bruges, 1474), the first book printed in English ; the Bay Psalm Book (Cambridge, 1640), the first book printed in the United States, etc. There are also many rare MSS. on vellum, illuminated, dating from before the invention of printing. These objects are exhibited and entertainingly explained by the librarian, the venerable Dr. S. Austin Allibone, author of the Dictionary of Authors. The picture-gallery is in the central part of the second story, and contains about 150 canvases by artists, principally modern, but including many noted names.

Among other parks may be noted Tompkins Square, covering ten acres of lawn and greenery, between East Seventh and Tenth Streets, and Avenues A and B, and surrounded by one of the most overcrowded tenement regions of the East side, one of the most appreciated breathing-places in the city ; and Mount Morris Square, which encloses a bold rocky hill in the environs of Harlem, and is well stocked with oaks, maples, tulip trees, etc., and near the fire-alarm tower, on the crest of the hill, has a fine plaza, from which vantage-ground a charming view is obtained. A pleasant open space, between Fortieth and Forty-second Streets, and Sixth Avenue and the Reservoir, is Bryant Park, which received its present name in 1884 in honor of the late William Cullen Bryant. It is a favorite resort for West-side juveniles. The world-renowned Crystal Palace of ante-bellum days occupied this site. Another of the popular minor parks is the Morningside Park, near Tenth Avenue, and extending from One Hundred and Tenth Street to One Hundred and Twenty-third Street. This is 47 acres in extent, and is mostly unimproved, though it contains a costly and far-viewing driveway. It

lies on the east or morning side of the ridge which separates Harlem Plains from the Hudson River and Riverside Park. Riverside Park is a charming place for a ramble or drive. The park is a narrow strip of land, occupying the high bank of the Hudson, and between the Hudson and Riverside Avenue. It extends from Seventy-second to One Hundred and Thirtieth Streets, is three miles long, and averages 500 feet wide. The area is about 178 acres, only a portion of which has been laid out in walks and drives, while the rest still retains the wild picturesqueness of nature. A magnificent driveway, cut into four broad sections by curving ribbons of lawns and trees, sweeps over the hills and along the edge of the bluff, affording very charming views of the Hudson River, Weehawken, Guttenberg, Edgewater, the Palisades, and upper Manhattan. On a noble elevation near the north end of the park is the brick tomb in which Gen. Grant's body was temporarily laid, with imposing ceremonies, August 8, 1885. Through the latticed door can be seen the flower-laden receptacle in which the remains of the great hero are placed. Near the tomb is the old Claremont mansion, named after Lord Clare, a royal colonial governor. Jerome Park, laid out and beautified with trees, shrubbery, a club-house, and other necessary buildings by Leonard W. Jerome, is the famous New York race-course. The park is held under a lease by the American Jockey Club, organized in 1866, and now the most prominent racing association in the country. The park is situated near Fordham, in the extreme northern suburb of the city. Races take place in June and October.

In 1874, by the so-called "Annexation Act," the three lowermost towns of Westchester County—Morrisania, West Farms, and Kingsbridge—were taken out of Westchester County and made a part of the City and County of New York. The act of annexation passed the Legislature in 1873, and then people voted on it in both Westchester County and New York. New York invited the three towns to come in, and the three towns were anxious to be made part of New York. The vote of the act was overwhelmingly in its favor on both sides of the Harlem River. In January, 1874, the measure went into effect, and the passage of a steam fire-engine across the Harlem River into the new district on that day was hailed with joy by the people of Morrisania as the visible sign that they had indeed become New Yorkers.

The annexation of this district extended the city limits from the Harlem River northward to a line running from the Hudson River just north of Mount St. Vincent, north of Woodlawn Heights, to the

Bronx River, and then down the Bronx River to Long Island Sound. It added to the city a territory of nineteen and a quarter square miles, or 12,317 acres, and a population of 40,000 people. The principal villages were Morrisania, Woodstock, Melrose, Mount Hope, Fairmount, West Farms, Tremont, Belmont, Fordham, and a portion of Williamsbridge. It is a territory rich in historic interest. Fortifications built by Washington are still to be seen on Gustav Schultz's place on Fordham Ridge, on the Bursing, and various places at Williamsbridge, and at other places in the townships. William O. Giles at Kingsbridge built his house just inside the lines of the old Fort Independence, from which the Hessian general, Knyphausen, drove the Americans. At Hunt's Point is the grave of Joseph Rodman Drake, and in Kingsbridge the residence of the brave Gen. Richard Montgomery, who fell at Quebec. On the Harlem River, just north of Harlem Bridge, is the residence of Gouverneur Morris of Revolutionary fame, the author of the Constitution of New York. At Fordham is Edgar Allan Poe's cottage. On the Morris property in Morrisania, it is said, there still exists the lane, fringed with cherry trees, in which Washington's army assembled when the British evacuated New York.

Before this part of Westchester County was united with the city, of course its government was that of the township system. The work of changing this to the city form was a long and difficult one, but Andrew H. Green performed it with skill, sagacity, and impartiality. He was assisted generally by those who had been instrumental in bringing about the annexation—Judge William H. Robertson, of Westchester County, Samuel R. Filley, Hugh N. Camp, Lewis G. Morris, Fordham Morris, James L. Wells, and William Caldwell. The towns brought with them a debt of $2,000,000, which the city assumed, the towns, of course, obtaining their share of responsibility for the city debt of $130,000,000. Throughout this territory property was "dead." There were no paved streets, no improvements at all save the few crude ones which had been made under the township governments. There was no system of rapid transit. There was a simple series of country villages. There were frame buildings nearly everywhere save in the lower part of Morrisania, along what is now Third Avenue. Previous to annexation Morrisania had been incorporated, and a kind of preliminary survey made of the town, showing the location of streets and grades. West Farms had been under the charge of the Department of Public Parks in so far as the Legislature had empowered the depart-

ment to make surveys and locate avenues and streets. These surveys were continued with great care and elaboration after the annexation.

The following table shows at a glance that the growth of the section has been rapid indeed :

Year.	No. of New Buildings.	Cost of New Buildings.	Amount of Conveyance.
1881.....	285	$1,052,995	
1882.....	343	1,409,913	$3,889,064
1883.....	405	1,428,967	4,343,545
1884.....	635	1,638,736	4,382,975
1885.....	582	1,927,274	4,787,848
1886.....	703	2,407,421	7,911,185
1887.....	1,033	4,733,305	11,226,480
1888.....	886	3,826,788	8,219,576

Understanding that One Hundred and Seventieth Street generally may be considered the dividing line between the Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth Wards of the city, the following figures showing assessed valuations are also interesting :

Year.	Twenty-third Ward.	Twenty-fourth Ward.	Total.
1874.....	$11,369,475	$11,536,890	$22,901,365
1880.....	13,478,300	9,423,685	22,901,985
1881.....	13,836,060	9,504,765	23,340,825
1882.....	14,299,475	9,577,825	23,877,300
1883.....	14,846,410	9,752,563	24,602,973
1884.....	15,632,255	9,888,810	25,521,065
1885.....	18,559,059	10,272,115	28,831,174
1886.....	19,038,126	11,214,370	30,852,496
1887.....	21,027,808	11,761,960	32,789,768
1888.....	24,215,376	14,113,103	38,328,479
1889.....	25,900,886	13,854,582	39,764,398

The building set in in Morrisania, and went steadily up Third Avenue, branching out on either side. Generally speaking, it may be said that below One Hundred and Seventieth Street the buildings put up were tenements with stores beneath, blocks of houses, and detached buildings. Above One Hundred and Seventieth Street the majority of buildings erected have been detached frame cottages of the villa style, of attractive modern designs. This is especially the case at Fordham, Tremont, Mount Hope, Belmont, Sedgwick Park, Bedford Park, Kingsbridge, and Woodlawn Heights.

The tenements with stores beneath have been mostly along Third Avenue, forming the invaluable "elevated road property." They would certainly extend farther than One Hundred and Seventieth Street, only the elevated road stops there. The railroad people say they cannot go further until Third Avenue is widened.

With all these advantages, property has nearly doubled in value in lower Morrisania within the last five years. The future of this part of the town is marked as that of a great manufacturing and commercial centre. The Harlem, New Haven, New York Central, and New York and Northern Railroads, and, locally, horse-car lines to every part of the annexed district, all centre here in a section south of One Hundred and Forty-fourth Street. And this district has a southern frontage on the Harlem River, soon to be converted by the new ship canal into a channel between the Hudson River, the outlet of New York State, and the sea; while the eastern part of the district is one shore of the actual harbor in which this channel meets the sea. Lower Morrisania certainly has a future before it second to that of no part of the island. Among the manufactories established there, most of them recently, are iron works, piano works in any number, silk works, flouring mills, electrical works, feather works, breweries, boat-building establishments, etc.

The houses that have been built in this section are brick residences, tenements, and, in the vicinity of Mott Haven, frame buildings for the accommodation of the employees in the manufactories. The residences are of two and three stories, and in a great measure suppiy the want felt for small homes across the Harlem River. Some of the buildings on Alexander Avenue are as handsome as those on the side-streets on the west side below the Harlem. Yet the houses are all for people of moderate means, who want homes of their own at fair prices. Most of the houses have brown-stone fronts. From One Hundred and Forty-fourth Street down, Morrisania is pretty solidly built up. Like Harlem, Morrisania is getting to be independent of "down town." It is now practically self-supporting in most particulars. Along the "Ridge," so called, on both sides of Mott Avenue, between One Hundred and Thirty-eighth and One Hundred and Forty-ninth streets, there has been a very handsome growth of brick residences. There are a few frame houses among them. They are mostly occupied by their owners, and are of a very desirable class. Along through Melrose, between Third avenue and the Harlem River, from One Hundred and Forty-sixth to One Hundred and Sixty-second Street, and along Courtlandt, Elton and Morris Avenues

are a good many rows of brick residences and tenements, with stores beneath. In this section there are a great many German residents. On the intersecting streets in the neighborhood are cottages and some apartments. Here, too, are located a number of small manufacturing establishments.

All this territory has, of course, the same system of public schools as the old new York, but better, perhaps, because more land can be acquired for school purposes than on Manhattan Island. The school building at Tremont is situated on the border of Crotona Park, on high ground, and from its cupola on a clear day the Brooklyn Bridge can be seen. The school at Fordham has the amplest conveniences. It is claimed that the Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth wards furnish a larger percentage of the students in the Normal College and in the College of the City of New York than any other part of the city.

There have recently been erected in the annexed district some very handsome churches. The new Church of the Immaculate Conception on One Hundred and Fiftieth Street, in Melrose, is said to have cost $150,000. The new and beautiful chapel of the historic old Episcopal Church of St. Ann's in Morrisania cost over $25,000. New Baptist, Methodist, and Congregational churches have been erected in Tremont. An Episcopal church edifice has been put up at West Farms, while another new stone church has gone up at Highbridgeville, on Ogden avenue. It is almost needless to say that the influence of the building of these churches upon the development of the section has been very great.

New York has 5,250 disciplined militia, and these form eight regiments of infantry and two batteries of artillery and Gatling guns. Each regiment has a separate armory, containing company rooms, drill-halls, reception rooms, libraries, etc. The Seventh Regiment (Colonel, Emmons Clark) Armory, built in 1879 at a cost of $300,000, is bounded by Sixty-sixth and Sixty-seventh Streets and Fourth and Lexington Avenues. The Eighth Regiment (Colonel, George D. Scott) has its armory on Ninth avenue and Twenty-seventh Street; and the armory of the Ninth Regiment (Colonel, William Seward) is at No. 221 West Twenty-sixth Street. The Eleventh Regiment is a German organization, and its colonel is Alfred P. Stewart. The armory is on Grand and Essex Streets. The Twelfth Regiment (of which James H. Jones is colonel) has its armory on Eighth Avenue, from Sixty-first to Sixty-second Street. The Twenty-second Regiment armory is located on Fourteenth Street, near Sixth Avenue.

The Sixty-ninth is the famous Irish regiment of the Civil War. Its colonel is James Cavanagh, and its armory is over Tompkins Market, on Third Avenue, between Sixth and Seventh Streets. The Seventy-first Regiment armory is at Broadway and Thirty-fifth Street. One of its quaintest trophies is a cannon, "captured from the Bowery boys" in the famous Dead-Rabbit war, in 1857. This was one of the bravest commands in the battle of Bull Run. E. A. McAlpin is the colonel. The militia are enlisted for five years, and they are equipped by the State with arms and other munitions, and partly with uniforms. In winter there are continual company drills; and in summer several days of camp duty under canvas, at the State camp-ground near Peekskill. They are a power behind the police on occasions of riot. They have swept the tumultuous streets with deadly volleys more than once, and were equally efficient in line of battle before Gen. Lee's heroic Southern infantry.

Some of the charitable and benevolent institutions in New York city are: The New York Hospital (Fifteenth Street near Fifth Avenue) is a great, many-balconied, brick building, with ornamental Gothic gables. The institution was founded by the Earl of Dunmore, in 1771; and its ancient seat between Duane and Church Streets and Broadway, was vacated in 1870, the present building being opened in 1877. Ward patients pay $1 a day. St. Luke's Hospital, at Fifth Avenue and Fifty-fourth Street, was founded in 1850 by the Rev. W. A. Muhlenberg, and has an oblong parallelogram of buildings, with wings, and a central chapel flanked with towers. It is attended by Episcopal nuns, and the form of worship is Episcopalian; but patients are received without regard to sect. Orphan Asylum, at Riverside Park, was founded about 1807, in a small hired house below City Hall Park. Its property is now worth $1,000,000, and 200 orphans are in its charge. Mount Sinai Hospital, at Lexington Avenue and East Sixty-sixth Street, is a noble Elizabethan pile of brick and marble, admirably equipped, with nearly 200 free beds. It cost $340,000, and was erected by Jewish New Yorkers, but is non-sectarian. Presbyterian Hospital, at Madison Avenue and East Seventieth Street, founded by James Lenox, who also established the Lenox Library, is a handsome Gothic building, dating from 1872. The New York Cancer Hospital (there is but one other in the world), is on Eighth Avenue, near One Hundred and Fifth Street. It was founded in 1884. with an endowment of $200,000 from John Jacob Astor, $50,000 from Mrs. General Collum, and $25,000 each from Mrs. Astor, Mrs. R. L. Stuart, and Mrs. C. H. Rogers. Old Ladies' Home, of the

Baptist Church, on Sixty-eighth Street, near Fourth Avenue, is a spacious semi-gothic building in the form of the letter H. Roosevelt Hospital, at Ninth Avenue and Fifty-ninth Street, richly endowed by the late James H. Roosevelt, is an admirably arranged and spacious pavilion hospital, opened in 1871, and accommodating 180 patients. Bloomingdale Asylum for the Insane, at Boulevard and One Hundred and Seventeenth Street, on Washington Heights, is a palatial brownstone building, erected mainly in 1821, amid charming grounds of forty-five acres. Only paying patients are received. The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, at Fanwood (One Hundred and Sixty-Second Street), Washington Heights, is richly endowed, and has thirty-seven acres of ground. It was founded in 1816, and educates 250 pupils, the course being eight years. Open daily, 1.30 to 4 P. M. Institution for the Blind, at Ninth Avenue and West Thirty-fourth Street, has a granite Gothic building. It was founded in 1831. Blind children are educated here, in letters and useful arts. Open to visitors, 1 to 6 P. M. daily.

New York's growth may well be held to have fully justified the wisdom of the State in giving up its independent custom-house and consenting to such negotiations of commerce by the general government as would make the city eventually the greatest port of entry for the most prominent of commercial nations.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

A CENTURY'S ART AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT—MINERAL RESOURCES CONSIDERED.

NOTHING contributes so much to a nation's progress in the mechanic arts as rich mineral resources, and in these America has been peculiarly fortunate. While the Spaniards, greedy for that wealth which proved their ruin, planted their colonies from Mexico to Chili along the western portion of the continent, rich in precious metals, our English ancestors fixed their homes in a portion which, though not destitute of mineral resources, offered no tempting prizes to the miners of that early day. The records of our colonial period have little to tell beyond the working of some iron ores along the seaboard, and attempts on a small scale to mine ores of copper and of lead. The first half century of our national existence does not add much to this record, and the history of the marvelous developments in the working of the coal, petroleum, iron, and copper in our Eastern regions, and in the mining of gold and silver in the West, belongs to the present generation.

It is in the division of our country which stretches from the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains to the Atlantic Ocean that are found the great stores of coal and iron, beside vast supplies of petroleum, salt, copper, and other minerals of less importance. Geologically described, this eastern half of the United States is essentially a great basin of crystalline paleozoic strata nearly encircled with azeoic rocks, and has been aptly described as a great bowl filled with mineral treasure, the outer rim of which is formed by the mountains of Northern New York, the hills of New England, the Highlands of the Hudson, and their southward continuation in the Blue Ridge nearly to the Gulf of Mexico. Thence, passing to the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains, it extends northward, and by the Great Lakes around the northern rim of the bowl to the point of departure. Within the area thus enclosed lies the vast Appalachian coal-field, with its dependent areas of anthracite and semi-bituminous coal, the lesser coal-fields of Michigan and Illinois, and the still more western

one to which the coals of Iowa, Missouri, and Arkansas belong. It includes, moreover, formations containing petroleum, salt, and lead, besides much iron, though not less abundant stores of the latter metal are found in the surrounding crystalline rocks.

The coal deposits of the great paleozoic basin furnish the mainspring of our principal mechanical and commercial enterprises, the great source of motive power, and the chief means of reducing and manufacturing our iron. If to this we add that the value of the coal now mined in the United States is equal to that of all the iron, gold and silver produced in the country, we have said enough to justify us in assigning it the first place in a survey of our mineral resources. The forest growth supplied the demands for fuel of the early English colonists, to whom the treasures of the great basin were little known, and the first attempts at mining mineral fuel were in the coal basin of Richmond, Virginia, one of several small areas which lie over its eastern rim, or between the Blue Ridge and the sea. The coal of Richmond occurs in what are known to geologists as mesozoic rocks, and belongs to a later age than the bituminous coal of Pennsylvania, which, however, it resembles in quality. It was probably first mined as early as 1750, and after the war of the Revolution was exported to Philadelphia, New York and Boston until within the last thirty years. Other coals have since replaced it in these markets, and it is now mined chiefly for local use.

The anthracite of Eastern Pennsylvania was first discovered, it is said, in 1770. In 1775, just a century since, a boat-load was taken down to the armory at Carlisle, and in 1791 the great open quarry of this fuel near Mauch Chunk was made known. From its unlikeness to the Virginia coal, and the difficulty of igniting it, the Pennsylvania anthracite encountered much opposition. Tradition tells us that a boat-load taken to Philadelphia in 1803 was broken up and used to mend the roads. But it slowly found its way into use; and from a pamphlet published in 1815 we learn that the coal from the Lehigh had been several years on trial in Philadelphia, where it had been compared with the Virginia bituminous coal, and, from the testimony of iron-workers, distillers, and others, was to be preferred to it for durability and economy. Oliver Evans had, moreover, at this time tried the anthracite with success under the boilers of his steam-engine, and also insisted upon its advantages for domestic purposes. Notwithstanding these results, the new fuel found its way very slowly into use, and in 1822 the total production of the anthracite mines was estimated at 3720 tons, against 48,000 tons of the coal from

Richmond, Virginia, then its only rival. Fifty years later, or in 1872, the official returns give for the exportation of coal from the anthracite region not less than 19,000,000 tons, besides about 2,500,000 tons for local consumption, while that of the Virginia coal-field for the same year is estimated at 62,000 tons. The late Professor Silliman, who visited the anthracite region in 1825, and published his report of it in the following year, was the first to appreciate the real value and importance of this deposit of fossil fuel, which he then spoke of as a great national trust.

The small detached basins of the anthracite region have together an area of only 472 miles; but the immense aggregate thickness of the seams of coal, varying in different parts from fifty to one hundred feet, and estimated at an average of seventy feet for the whole, makes this wonderful region of greater value than Western coal-fields, whose extent is measured by many thousands of square miles. Mr. P. W. Shaeffer, who has calculated the cubic contents of these anthracite beds, estimates it to have been at the time when mining was commenced equal to 26,361,070,000 tons, from which one-half may be deducted for waste in mining and breaking for market, and for losses from faults and irregularities in the beds, giving of merchantable coal 13,180,538,000 tons. If from this we subtract the amount produced by the mines from 1820 to 1870, estimated at 206,666,325 tons, we had still in store at the latter date a supply of 25,000,000 tons a year, or more than the present rate of consumption, for 525 years. The large waste in mining this precious fuel is due in part to the difficulty in working seams of unusual thickness, often in highly inclined positions. Moreover, the loss in breaking and dressing for the market, which demands the anthracite in regularly-assorted sizes, is very great, and the waste from these two causes amounts to about one-third the entire contents of the veins, while in Great Britain the average loss in mining and marketing ordinary coals is not over one-fifth. The great value of our American anthracite is due in part to its peculiar qualities, its hardness, density, purity and smokelessness, which render it pre-eminently fit for domestic purposes and for iron-smelting; but in part also to its geographical position. Its proximity to the Atlantic sea-board, which is almost destitute of coal, to our great cities and wealthy and populous districts, and, moreover, to some of the most important deposits of iron ore in the country, has already led to an immense development of mining in the anthracite region. The New England States, Eastern New York, New Jersey, and Eastern Pennsylvania look to it for their chief supplies of fuel;

great systems of railways and canals have been called into existence by it; and a vast iron-producing industry has grown up, dependent upon the anthracite fields, which now furnish nearly one half of all the coal mined in the United States. It results from the course of trade that large quantities of anthracite find their way westward by railways, canal-boats and lake steamers, freights in that direction being very low at certain seasons of the year. Thus there were brought to Buffalo in 1873 about three-quarters of a million of tons of anthracite, the greater part by railway, of which Chicago received over half a million, or nearly one-third of its entire coal supply. Smaller quantities of anthracite find their way down the Ohio River to Cincinnati and beyond.

The chief supply of the regions to the west of the meridian of Washington comes, however, from the great Appalachian basin, which, underlying much of the western half of Pennsylvania and of the eastern third of Ohio, West Virginia, and a part of Eastern Kentucky, stretches through Eastern Tennessee as far as Alabama, embracing an area of coal-bearing rocks estimated at nearly 58,000 square miles. Along the eastern border of this vast field of bituminous coal there are in Pennsylvania and in Maryland several small areas which furnish a semi-bituminous coal, intermediate in composition, as in position, between it and the anthracite of the East, and now very largely mined. The best known of these outlying basins are the Blossburg, on the north, and the Cumberland, in Maryland, on the south; but there are between these other similar areas of considerable importance, such as the Broad Top, Johnstown, Towanda, and Ralston, the production of the whole being about 5,000,000 tons of coal annually, of which nearly one-half comes from the Cumberland, and about one-fifth from the Blossburg. This latter was first opened by a railway in 1840, while an outlet from the Cumberland field to the seaboard was established by the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad in 1842, thus bringing for the first time the bituminous coal of the interior to tide-water, and displacing in Eastern markets the coal of Virginia. These semi-bituminous coals, very rich in carbon, and yet possessing the property of coking in the fire, are much esteemed for iron-working and for generating steam, for which they are largely used on our railways and ocean steamers, besides which great quantities are converted into coke for iron smelting.

Ohio is next to Pennsylvania in coal production, and offers a free burning splint or block coal, which is prized for its freedom from ash and also from the fact that it can be directly used in the blast-furnace

for smelting iron ores without previous coking, and it has given rise to an important iron industry in its vicinity. The supply in Northern Ohio is, however, limited, and it is rapidly becoming exhausted. A much more important deposit of a similar coal, under very favorable conditions for mining, has lately been made known farther southward in the State, in the Hocking Valley, where it is, moreover, accompanied by large beds of coking coal. The coal of Ohio is destined from its geographical position to become of great importance: lying on the northwest border of the Appalachian field, as the anthracite and semi-bituminous coals of Pennsylvania do upon its northeast border, it has to the north and west of it a vast, wealthy and populous region, with growing industries, and demanding large and increasing supplies of coal.

The extension southward of the Appalachian coal-field through West Virginia and parts of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Alabama is known to abound in valuable beds of bituminous coal, which have lately attracted considerable attention. Since the opening of the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad the coals from the valley of the Kanawha are finding their way, to some extent, to the seaboard and into Eastern markets, but with this exception the vast coal deposits of this great Southern region are as yet mined only to supply the limited local demands.

Among the important uses of bituminous coal is the manufacture of illuminating gas, for which purpose immense quantities of coal are distilled. The annual consumption for this purpose in the cities of New York and Brooklyn is estimated at about 400,000 tons. Those coals which yield large quantities of pure gas of high illuminating power are greatly prized. The Eastern cities are in part furnished with gas coal from Cape Breton, but the greater part of the coals for this purpose is got from Western Pennsylvania. Excellent gas coals are, however, obtained in Ohio and in West Virginia.

The State of Michigan includes a coal basin with an area of not less than 6,700 square miles, but the beds of coal which it contains are few, thin, and of inferior quality. For this reason, and from the fact that the State is cheaply supplied with superior coals from Pennsylvania and Ohio, the coal of Michigan is worked only to a small extent for local consumption, the estimated production for 1872 being but 30,000 tons. The Illinois coal basin, which underlies the greater part of that State, and extends into the western parts of Indiana and Kentucky, has an area of not less than 47,000 square miles. Along its eastern and western borders in Clay County, Indiana, and near St.

Louis, are found deposits of an excellent block coal like that of Ohio, adapted for iron smelting, but with this exception the coals of this great basin are generally sulphurous and inferior in quality, and command in the market of Chicago a price much below those of Pennsylvania and Ohio. Chicago received in 1873 over 1,600,000 tons of coal, of which about two-fifths only were from the adjacent coal-field, the remainder being brought from the two States just named. The first working of coal in Illinois dates from 1810, and the production of the State for 1872 was equal to 3,000,000 tons, while Indiana furnished 800,000, and that portion of the coal-field which lies in Western Kentucky 800,000.

The coals of the great field west of the Mississippi, which extends through Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, and Arkansas, are mostly of inferior quality and in thin beds, but are of great local importance in these sparsely wooded regions. In the State of Arkansas, moreover, there are found beds of a superior semi-bituminous coal, approaching to anthracite in its character. Further westward, in the Rocky Mountains and thence to the Pacific coast, from the confines of Mexico to Canada, are extensive deposits of tertiary coals or lignites, which, though inferior in quality to the coals of the Appalachian basin, are, in the absence of better fuel, employed for generating steam and for domestic purposes. They are, however, very variable in quality, and some beds have of late been found which are fit for the manufacture of illuminating gas, and are even capable of yielding a coke suitable for metallurgical processes. These coals are mined in Utah, Colorado, and Wyoming, and again on the Pacific coast in California, Oregon, and Washington Territory. Of the coal supply in San Francisco in 1873, which equaled 441,000 tons, about sixty per cent. came from these deposits along the western coast, the remainder being from Australia, England, and the Eastern States.

The petroleum industry of the United States was in its beginning closely connected with coal, since it was the production of oils from bituminous coals which led the way to the utilization of the native mineral oils. It had long been known that tar and oily matters could be extracted from coal and from shales impregnated with coaly matter by subjecting them to a high temperature, these substances, although not existing ready-formed in the coals, being generated by the decomposing action of heat. A product thus obtained was known to apothecaries more than a century ago by the name of British oil; and in 1834 experiments on a large scale were made in France by

Selligue to manufacture illuminating oils by the distillation of shales, and with partial success.

In 1860 the American production of petroleum rose to 500,000 barrels of forty gallons each, and for the decade ending with 1870 it amounted to not less than 35,273,000 barrels of crude oil. Of this by far the greater part came from Pennsylvania, for of the 6,500,000 barrels produced in 1870, not less than 5,569,000 were from that State, the production of about 3,000 wells, which is an average of only about five barrels daily for each well. This growth has steadily continued.

The history of the iron industry of the United States, as yet confined to the region east of the Rocky Mountains, must be considered in connection with the coal upon which it is to a great extent dependent. The great supplies of iron ores to the east of the Appalachian coal-field are, first, from the beds, chiefly of the magnetic species, but occasionally of red hematite, which abounds in the Adirondack region of New York, extending northward into Canada (which furnishes a considerable quantity of ore to the American market); while southward, in the mountain belt from the Highlands of the Hudson to South Carolina, are great deposits of similar ores, extensively mined in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Within the eastern rim of the basin and parallel with it, is, in the second place, a belt of iron ores, chiefly brown hematite, which is traced from Vermont along the western border of New England, and assumes a great development in parts of Pennsylvania, Virginia, Tennessee, and Alabama. Further westward, within the great basin, are found the red fossiliferous ores, which lie near the summit of the Silurian series, and are traced from Wisconsin eastward through Ontario and Central New York, and thence southward, parallel with the Alleghanies and in proximity to the coal, through Pennsylvania, as far as Alabama. Besides these are to be considered the great deposits of iron ores belonging to the coal measures, including those of the lower carboniferous. These ores, which are carbonates and limonites, occasionally with red hematite, abound in Western Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia. They are wanting or rare in the middle and western coal-fields of the great basin; but between these, in the Missouri and Arkansas, there rise, from the thinly spread out paleozoic strata, mountains of crystalline rocks, which include immense deposits of red hematite and magnetic ores of great value. Farther northward these crystalline rocks, with their metallic treasures, are concealed beneath newer strata, but they re-appear,

charged with great quantities of these same species of iron ore, in the northern peninsula of Michigan, whence, sweeping eastward through Canada, the chain of crystalline rocks bearing these ores is continued to the Adirondack region of New York.

The great demand for iron in this country for the purpose of railway construction, together with the high prices in Great Britain in 1872 and 1873, led to a large increase in the number of blast furnaces. In the two years just named eighty-three furnaces, some of them among the largest in the country, were finished and put into blast, and the whole number in operation in the autumn of 1873 was estimated at 636, having a capacity of producing not less than 4,371,277 tons of pig-iron, while a later estimate from the same source, the American Iron and Steel Association, gives in July, 1874, a capacity of 4,500,000 tons, or about 1,000,000 more than the greatest consumption yet reached. Even at the previous rate of increase, many years must elapse before the country can consume such an amount of iron, and with the general prostration of business, and especially of the iron trade, in 1874, we are not surprised to find that a very large proportion of these furnaces is now out of blast, and that the selling price of pig-iron at the beginning of 1875 was below that at which it could be made at some of the furnaces. For the future the iron manufacturers of our country must strive for progress not only in the selection of ores and fuels, but in improvements in the construction and the management of furnaces, in all of which directions great economies remain to be effected, as the results obtained in late years by the skill and high science of British iron-masters abundantly show. In this way we may hope before long to rival not only in quality but in cheapness, the iron products of other countries. With the boundless resources of coal and iron which our country affords, it is only a question of how soon we can successfully contend with Great Britain in foreign markets. The entire iron production of the world was in 1856 about 7,000,000 tons, and in 1874 it was estimated at 15,000,000 tons, of which, at both of these periods, about one-half was furnished by Great Britain. It is supposed by Mr. A. S. Hewitt that at the end of the century the demand will amount to not less than 25,000,000 tons. The present immense production is already taxing heavily the resources of England, which obtains a large proportion of its purer ores from foreign countries, and a period will soon be reached when she can no longer meet the world's increasing demand, for the supply of which no other country offers advantages comparable with the United States. The day is therefore not far distant when, in the words of Mr. Hewitt,

all rivalry between the two nations in iron production must pass away.

The copper mines of the United States next claim attention. Throughout the crystalline rocks which form the eastern border of the paleozoic basin, ores of this metal are pretty abundantly distributed, and are now mined and treated for the extraction of the copper in Vermont, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, and Eastern Tennessee, besides which ores from other localities along this belt, and from various regions to the westward of the great basin, are brought to Baltimore and to the vicinity of Boston for reduction. The total production from all these sources, which has never been greater than at present, is, however, estimated at less than 2,500 tons—an amount inconsiderable when compared with the production of the mines of Lake Superior. In these, unlike the mines just mentioned, and, indeed, unlike most others in the world, the copper, instead of being in the condition of an ore—that is to say, mineralized and disguised by combination with sulphur or with oxygen and other bodies, from which it must be separated by long and costly chemical processes—is found in the state of pure metal, and needs only to be mechanically separated from the accompanying rocky matters previous to melting into ingot copper. The history of the copper region on the south shore of Lake Superior is famous in the annals of American mining. The metal, which in many cases is found in masses of all sizes up to many tons in weight, was known and used by the aboriginal races, and the traces of their rude mining operations are still met with. The first modern attempts at extracting this native copper, in 1771, were unsuccessful, and it was not until 1843 that the attention of mining adventurers was again turned toward this region. Numerous mines were opened, and a period of reckless speculation followed, which ended in 1847 in the failure and abandonment of nearly all the enterprises which had been begun. They were, however, soon resumed under wiser management, and have been followed up with remarkable success. At first the operations were chiefly directed to the extraction of the great masses of native copper which were found distributed in an irregular manner in veins or fissures in the rocks, and yielded in some cases large profits; but with the exhaustion of these a more abundant and regular source of supply has been found in layers of a soft earthy material, known as ash beds, containing metallic copper finely disseminated, or in beds of a conglomerate, of which pure copper forms the cementing material. The successful working of these two kinds of deposits has been arrived at only by well-directed skill in management, and by mechanical appliances which diminish the

cost of mining, crushing, and washing the rock, and reduce to a minimum the inevitable loss of copper in the waste material. No mining industry illustrates more strikingly than this the importance of such economies.

The immense development in the production of precious metals has been noted elsewhere, but the history of the mining of our gold and silver would be imperfect without a notice of the quicksilver of California, as it is by its aid that nearly the whole of these precious metals, with the exception of the silver of the lead ores, is extracted. Quicksilver ore was discovered in California as early as 1849, and the mines opened soon after have not only continued to supply the wants of the immense gold and silver industry of the West, but since 1852 have furnished large quantities for exportation to Mexico, South America, China, and Australia. This amounted in 1865 to 44,000 flasks of seventy-six and a half pounds each, or 3,366,000 pounds of quicksilver. The increased demand for this metal for the treatment of our silver ores, and the diminished production of the mines, have since reduced considerably the exportation. In no other region of the globe, however, is the ore of quicksilver so widely distributed as in California, and there is reason to believe that from the opening and working of new deposits the production will soon be much increased—a result which will be stimulated by the present high price of quicksilver and its scarcity in foreign markets.

We have noticed the falling off in the yield of gold from California which began in 1853. It was not until 1860 that supplies of this metal from other districts appeared, rising from $1,000,000 in that year to $28,000,000 in 1866, since which time there has been a gradual falling off from these also, so that while for 1873 the gold of California equaled $19,000,000, that from other sources in the Western United States was $17,000,000, making a production of $36,000,000, that of the entire world being estimated at $100,000,000. Dr. R. W. Raymond, gives the entire gold product of the country from 1847 to 1873 inclusive at $1,240,750,000; and if to that we add his calculation of the silver produced up to that date, equal to $189,000,000, we shall have $1,429,750,000. Adding to this the figures for 1874, which exceed a little those of 1873, we have a grand total of over $1,500,000,000 of gold and silver as the production of the territory between the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific up to that time, from the opening of the mines of California in 1847.

CHAPTER XXXV.

A CENTURY'S ART AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT—THE COTTON-GIN—ELECTRICAL INVENTIONS—PHOTOGRAPHY.

In connection with the political history of the United States, we have noted the invention of the cotton-gin in 1793, by Eli Whitney. Its beneficent effects were confined to no single nation, and the reduction in the price of cotton cloth is of almost as much value to the Hottentot in the wilds of Africa—for whom that fabric furnishes his only clothing—as it is to the civilized man in England or America. In the process of separating the lint from the seed of the cotton-plant's product, the Whitney "saw gin" was the third stage of human progress. At first this work had been done by hand, and had taken the labor of a single slave for a whole day to properly separate the seed from a single pound of lint. It may well be imagined that with such a process to be gone through before any use could be made of the product, the raising of cotton was not carried on with any enthusiasm, and much profit could not be made from it. Then came the "roller gin," which was a great improvement, but was still too slow for modern methods. It was this upon which the inventor undertook to improve. Whitney was a native of Massachusetts, but a citizen of Georgia. He spent many years in carefully studying out the machine which has made his name justly famous, and promises untold benefits upon millions still unborn. This invention made it possible for almost every American planter in the South to have his own gin on his own plantation, and to send out the separated lint in bales.

The first cotton-mill in the United States, operated upon the factory system, was opened at Beverly, Mass., in the year 1787, the same in which the Federal Constitution was drawn up in the Convention at Philadelphia. It was the object of general solicitude, and was assisted by the Legislature with grants of money amounting to over £1,500. The next factory was erected at East Bridgewater, Mass., by Hugh Robert and Alexander Orr, who had come to this country from Scotland. In 1789, Samuel Sloter, a native of England, emigrated

to Rhode Island, and set up in a factory at Pawtucket a series of Arkwright spinning jennies, made with his own hands. As early as 1790 a cotton-mill with eighty-four spindles was at work at Statesburg, South Carolina. In 1832 there were 795 mills, employing 57,500 hands, and running 1,250,000 spindles in operation in the United States. In 1884 the number of spindles was 13,300,000, and the number of hands employed was 200,000; at the same time the amount of the crop handled was 1,855,000 bales, instead of 174,000."

American cotton goods hold their own in the markets of the world in spite of the advantage which the English have in the control of the carrying trade. They are honestly made, and even in the ports of India and China find preference, because they are better than the adulterated goods which come from the English mills at Manchester and elsewhere.

The making of cotton-seed oil is an industry which has followed the development of the manufacture of cotton goods. We have an annual cotton crop of some 6,000,000 bales, and after the reserve of seed necessary for planting, there is an average of 2,500,000 tons of cotton-seed left. This is now made into oil, which is a perfectly available substitute for olive oil, and is largely used in the harmless adulteration of the cheaper grades of lard. The extent to which this production has grown may be understood from the fact that even in 1879, 88,609,465 gallons of crude oil were turned out, and this amount has been constantly increasing.

In the field of Electrical invention the Americans lead the world, and have done so ever since the invention of the telegraph by Prof. Morse, or in fact, since the identity of lightning and electricity was discovered by Benjamin Franklin. European inventors, like Lamond and Cavallo, Volta and Galvin, had given their time to a consideration of the transmission of ideas by means of the electric current. Oersted, in 1820, observed that the magnetic needle had a tendency to assume a direction at right angles to that of the excited wire. The farther experiments of Oersted and Ampère, and the discovery of Farraday that magnetism was induced in a bar of soft iron under the influence of a voltaic circuit, and that of Sturgeon, in 1825, that a soft iron bar surrounded by a helix of wire through which a voltaic current is passed is magnetized during the time such current continues, gave rise to the first really convenient and practical system of electro-telegraphy. One difficulty remained—the resistance of the transmitting wire to the comparatively feeble current engendered by the voltaic battery. This was overcome by Professor Henry, who, in

1831, invented the form of magnet now in use, and discovered the principle of *combination of circuits* constituting the *receiving magnet* and *relay*, or *local battery*, as they are familiarly known in connection with the Morse apparatus. The effect of a combination of circuits is to enable a weak or exhausted circuit to bring into action and substitute for itself a fresh and powerful one. This is an essential condition to obtaining useful mechanical results from electricity where a long circuit of conductors is used.

In 1832 Professor Morse began to devote his attention to the subject of telegraphy, and in that year, while on his passage home from Europe, he invented the form of telegraph since so well known as "Morse's."

A short line worked on his plan was set up in 1835, though it was not until June 20, 1840, that he obtained his first patent, and nearly four years elapsed before means could be procured, which were finally granted by the government of the United States, to test its practical working over a line of any length, though he had as early as 1837 endeavored to induce Congress to appropriate a sum of money sufficient to construct a line between Washington and Baltimore.

Morse's first idea was to employ chemical agencies for recording the signals, but he subsequently abandoned this for an apparatus which simply marked on strips of paper the dots and dashes composing his alphabet. The paper itself is now generally dispensed with, at least in this country, and the signals read by sound—a circumstance which conduces to accuracy in transmission, as the ear is found less liable to mistake the duration and succession of sounds than the eye to read a series of marks on paper.

Professor Morse deserves high honor for the ingenious manner in which he availed himself of scientific discoveries previously made by others, for many important discoveries of his own, and for the courage and perseverance which he manifested in endeavoring to render his system of practical utility to mankind by bringing it prominently to the notice of the public, and he lived to see it adopted in its essential features throughout the civilized world.

The attention of Wheatstone in England appears to have been drawn to the subject of telegraphy in 1834. His first telegraphy comprised five pointing needles and as many line wires, requiring the deflection of two of the needles to indicate each letter. His first dial instrument was patented in 1840. Modifications were, however, subsequently made in it. The transmission of messages was effected by a wheel having fifteen teeth and as many interspaces, each represent-

ing a letter of the alphabet or a numeral, and thirty spokes corresponding to this, and forming part of the line. The circuit was closed by two diametrically opposite springs so arranged that when one was in contact with a tooth the other was opposite a space, when the transmitter was turned until opposite a particular letter and held there, a continuous current being produced, causing an index on the indicating dial at the other end of the line, which had thirty divisions corresponding to those of the transmitter, to turn until it arrived opposite the letter to be indicated. The revolution of the index was effected by clock-work, the escapement of which was actuated by an electro-magnet at either end of a pivoted beam, the ends of which carried two soft iron armatures. One of the line wires, as well as one of the contact springs of the transmitter, and one of the electro magnets of the indicator, were afterward dispensed with.

A magneto-electric apparatus was subsequently substituted for the voltaic battery. The single-needle telegraph of Cooke and Wheatstone is caused to indicate the letters and figures by means of the deflections to the right or left of a vertical pointer ; for instance, the letter A is indicated by two deflections to the left, N by two deflections to the right, I by three consecutive deflections to the right and then one to the left, and so on. This is extensively employed in Great Britain and India.

Bain, in 1846, patented the electro-chemical telegraph, which dispensed with the relay magnet at intermediate stations, and subsequently Gintl, in Austria, and Bonelli constructed telegraphs of this class varying in details from that of Bain. Duplex and quadruplex systems have since been invented. Electroplating is an invention of the century. Volta himself experimented about 1800. Cruikshank noticed the corrosion in one wire and the precipitation of metallic silver on the other when passing the "galvanic influence" through the wires in a bath of nitrate of silver. Wollaston experimented in 1801. Spencer made casts from coins in 1838. Jacobi, of Dorpat, soon after gilded the iron dome of the Cathedral of St. Isaac, at St. Petersburg, with 274 pounds of ducat gold, deposited by battery. The art has grown into use, and now baser metals, in the shape of articles for household service, are cased with silver ; electrotyped forms are used as printing surfaces ; nickel is deposited on numerous articles which are exposed to damp, and on others to add to their beauty, as with movements of watches. It is impossible to enumerate the uses and applications, and not easy to exaggerate the value of the art.

The electric light is eminently the child of the century. In its production and its uses it touches nowhere upon the knowledge or the methods of the men of the previous periods. It is a pure gain of the present. The bright spark from the electrical machine had been observed by Wall in 1708, the Leyden jar was invented by Cunœus in 1746, and the experiments of Dufay, Nollet, Gray, Franklin, and others soon gave valuable results. Another whole series of observations and inventions founded upon the discoveries of Volta and Galvani was necessary before the transient spark was succeeded by the intense and unremitting light developed between two pieces of carbon placed at the arrangement by which small lumps of pure carbon nearly in contact, and inclosed in air-tight vessels, were rendered luminous by currents of galvanic electricity. The break in the continuity of the circuit at this point causes resistance, generating intense heat and the consumption of the carbon, which is accompanied by an extremely brilliant light. As the carbon burns away, one or both of the pieces require to be advanced, and the chief difficulty was found to be in maintaining the points at such a distance from each other as to render the light continuous. This is now effected by means of an electro-magnet and clock movement, the duty of the latter being to bring the points together as they are gradually consumed, while the magnet checks the clock action when not desired.

This light is very largely used in the lecture-room. It was introduced into Dungeness Light-house, on the southeast coast of England, in 1862 ; at la Hève, France, a year or two later. It was used in the excavating chamber in the base of the deep caissons of the St. Louis Bridge ; during the excavation of the docks at Cherbourg ; on various festal occasions in cities of America and Europe.

The incandescent light on which the Maxim, the Edison, and other lamps are now constructed is made on the principle of heating a piece of carbon white hot by means of electricity, in a vacuum, where, of course, it cannot burn. The light thus afforded is perfectly steady, and is now largely used by hotels, workshops, and private families. An invention of Edison enables the current used to be subdivided and measured almost as easily as gas is measured. Another advantage which the incandescent has over the arc light is in the fact that its steady and mild current does not render the wires over which it runs dangerous to one who comes in contact with them. Men, and even horses, have been knocked senseless or killed in New York by simply touching the wire over which an arc light intermittent current was running. The Legislature of the State of New York has recently

passed a law for the substitution of death by electricity for hanging in cases where capital punishment has been imposed. This system has never yet been tried.

Electric railways on several systems have been devised by American inventors. Nothing but the expensiveness of producing and storing the electricity stands in the way of their complete triumph over steam railways. There is at present one electric car built on the Julian storage system running on the Fourth Avenue street railway in this city. It is said to satisfy the anticipations of its constructors. The uses to which electricity has been put by Mr. Edison are too fresh in the public mind to need recapitulation here. The telephone which is in common use everywhere is generally held to be Mr. Bell's invention, but the New Jersey magician had a hand in its development. The phonograph is Mr. Edison's own work, and is in many respects the most wonderful of all modern inventions, though not destined to have so much effect as some others on the future of the human race.

The art of photography is entirely embraced within the century. The solitary fact bearing upon the subject, and known to the world previous to 1776, was that *hornsilver* (fused chloride of silver) is blackened by exposure to the sun's rays. It is now known that many bodies are photo-chemically sensitive in a greater or less degree, but some of the salts of silver and chromic acid in conjunction with organic matter are pre-eminently so, and are used practically to the exclusion of all others.

Scheele in 1777 drew attention to the activity of the *violet* and *blue* rays as compared with the rest of the spectrum; and Ritter in 1801 proved the existence of *dark rays* beyond the violet end of the visible spectrum by the power they possessed of blackening chloride of silver. Wollaston experimented upon gum-guaiacum. Wedgwood, previous to 1802, was the first to produce a photograph, in the technical sense of the word; this was a negative of an engraving which was laid over a sheet of paper moistened with a solution of nitrate of silver. Such a picture had to be carefully preserved from daylight, or the whole surface would blacken. Neither Wedgwood, nor Davy, who accompanied with observations the memorandum submitted by Wedgwood to the Royal Society, devised any mode of fixing the image.

From 1814 to 1827 Joseph Nicéphore Niepce, of Chalons on the Saône, experimented on the subject. In the latter year he communicated his process. He coated a plate of metal or glass with a varnish of asphaltum dissolved in oil of lavender, and exposed it under an

engraving or in a camera; the sunlight so affected the bitumen that the parts corresponding to the white portions of the picture or image remained upon the plate, when those not exposed to light were subsequently dissolved by oil of bitumen and washed away. This was a permanent negative picture. In 1829 Niepce associated himself with Daguerre.

In 1834 Fox Talbot commenced his investigations, and in January, 1839, announced his *calotype* process. He prepared a sheet of paper with *iodide of silver*, dried it, and just before use covered the surface with a solution of *nitrate of silver* and *gallic acid*, and dried it again. Exposure in the camera produced no visible effect, but the latent image was *developed* by a re-application of the gallo-nitrate, and finally *fixed* by *bromide of potassium*, washed and dried. A negative so obtained was laid over a sensitized paper, and thus a *positive print* was obtained. This was a wonderful advance.

In the same month (January, 1839) Daguerre's invention was announced, but was not described till July of that year. In the *daguerreotype*, which has made the name of the inventor a household word, and furnished a test of skill in all the spelling-schools of the United States, polished silver-surfaced plates are coated with iodide of silver by exposure to the fumes of dry iodine, then exposed in the camera, and the latent image developed by *mercurial fumes*, which attach themselves to the iodide of silver in quantities proportional to the actinic action. The picture is fixed by *hyposulphite of soda*, which prevents farther change by light.

Goddard in 1839 introduced the use of *bromine* vapor conjointly with that of iodine in sensitizing the silver surface.

The addition of chlorine was by Claudet in 1840. M. Fizeau applied the *solution of gold*, which combined with the finely divided mercury, and in part replaced it.

In 1848 M. Niepce de St. Victor coated glass with albumen, and treated it with nitrate of silver to sensitize and coagulate it. The film hardened in drying, and furnished a negative from which pictures might be printed by light.

The collodion process, by Scot Archer, of London, was one of the most remarkable inventions of the series, and has made photography the most important art industry of the world. A plate of glass is cleaned, floated with collodion, sensitized with iodides and bromides, usually of potassium. It is then plunged in a solution of nitrate of silver. Metallic silver takes the place of the potassium, and forms insoluble iodide and bromide of silver in the film, which assumes a

milky appearance. The plate is exposed in the camera, and the latent image developed by an aqueous solution of protosulphate of iron, the picture gradually emerging by a dark deposit forming upon those places where the light has acted, the density of this deposit being directly proportional to the energy of the chemical rays. When sufficiently developed, the plate is washed with water, and fixed by washing away the free silver salt by a solvent, such as the cyanide of potassium or hyposulphite of soda. This removes the milky character of the film, and leaves the picture apparently resting on bare glass.

To produce positive photographic prints from such a negative, a sensitized sheet of paper is placed beneath the negative, and exposed to the sun's rays. The light passes through the negative in quantity depending upon the transparency of its several parts, and produces a proportionate darkening of the silver salts in the albuminous surface of the paper. The paper is now washed to remove the unaltered nitrate, toned by a salt of gold, fixed by hyposulphite of soda, washed, dried, mounted, and glazed.

The trouble and difficulty in the efficient working of collodion negatives out-of-doors, created a desire for a means of preserving a collodion plate in a sensitive condition, so as to render it unnecessary to coat, sensitize, and develop the plate where the landscape is taken. Accordingly a number of preservative and dry-plate processes have been invented. No dry process, however, gives results fully equal in quality to the work from wet plates, but they offer other advantages which can not be ignored.

The stereoscopic camera used for field work has an arrangement for instantaneous exposure of the two lenses, which admit pencils of beams to the plates in the binary chamber. Shutters are placed in front of each tube, so arranged that by touching a spring they are simultaneously rotated, bringing for an instant of time a hole in each shutter in correspondence with the tube admitting rays of light from the origin to sensitized plates on the interior.

J. W. Osborne patented in Australia, September 1, 1859, and in the United States, June 25, 1861, a transfer process, in which he prepares a sheet of paper by coating one side with a mixture of albumen, gelatine, and bichromate of potash, and dries it in the dark. This is exposed under a negative, whereby a visible change is produced, the brilliant yellow of the sheet, due to the salt of chromium, being changed to a chestnut-brown. In addition to this visible change, the organic matter becomes insoluble. A coating of transfer-ink is now applied to the whole exposed surface by passing

the sheet through the press, face down, upon an inked stone. When the sheet is removed the photographic picture is almost invisible. The sheet is then floated, ink side upward, upon hot water, the action of which is to coagulate the albumen, rendering it insoluble, and to swell and soften the gelatine, causing the part affected by light to appear depressed by contrast. The sheet of paper so floated is next placed upon a slab, and the superfluous ink rubbed off by a wet sponge. This operation develops the picture. The sheet is then washed, dried, and transferred to the stone in the usual way. The coagulated albumen forms over the whole surface of the paper a continuous film, which adheres strongly to the stone during the transfer process, preventing any shifting and consequent doubling of the lines. This is, for all practical purposes, the first successful photo-lithographic process, and has been used in the Crown Lands Survey Office of Victoria since September, 1859, in the publication of maps. Substantially the same process is used in the Ordnance Survey Office of England. The duplication and copying of drawings for the United States Patent-office has been for some years performed by this process, which, in accuracy and speed, leaves nothing to be desired.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

A CENTURY'S ART AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT—LIFE ASSURANCE IN THE UNITED STATES.

The subject of life assurance is one in which the theories and calculations of mathematicians have always taken an important part. Before the organization of life assurance companies it was proposed by governments to raise loans, which were to be repaid by annuities; and attempts were made to calculate the values of such annuities. In 1693 the Royal Society published "An Estimate of the Degrees of Mortality of Mankind, Drawn from Curious Tables of the Births and Funerals of the City of Breslau, with an Attempt to Ascertain the Price of Annuities upon Lives, by E. Halley, F. R. S." It was found that of 1,000 births, 500 persons died by the end of the thirty-third year; so that thirty-three years was taken as the average of human life, or what we would now call the expectation of life for an infant at birth.

Abraham De Moivre published in 1725 a treatise on annuities, in which he assumed 86 years as the maximum age, and half of the difference between a given age and 86 years as the probable duration of life at the given age.

The first organization for life assurance purposes in this country was made in 1759, when the Presbyterian Synods of New York and Philadelphia procured from the proprietary Government of Pennsylvania a charter of a "Corporation for the Relief of Poor and Distressed Presbyterian Ministers, and of the Poor and Distressed Widows and Children of Presbyterian Ministers." There was already a fund for the aid of the partially supported clergy; and a fund was now collected for the relief of widows and deceased clergymen, and a plan devised by which a Presbyterian clergyman could, by making annual payments during his life, secure, under certain conditions, the payment of an annuity to his surviving widow or children.

One of the curious conditions of this plan was, "That every contributor at his marriage, and as often as that happens, shall pay one year's rate extraordinary, as he thereby makes the chance worse, by bringing, in general, a younger widow upon the Fund."

In 1769 a similar corporation was chartered by the Proprietories of the Province of Pennsylvania for the relief of the widows and children of clergymen in the communion of the Church of England in America; the same persons being incorporated also, by the Provinces of New Jersey and New York.

Up to 1792 the Presbyterian Corporation had paid over $48,000 to annuitants. When 116 years old, that is, in 1875, having obtained an amendment to its charter with a change of name, it began to transact a general business of life assurance confined to clergymen of the Presbyterian Church, under the title of the Presbyterian Annuity and Life Insurance Company; and this, the oldest life company in the United States, and one of the oldest in the world, is still in existence.

Among other early companies were the Pennsylvania Company for Insurance on Lives, etc., incorporated in 1812, and still in existence, though now only as a trust company; and the Girard Life Insurance, Annuity, and Trust Company, chartered in 1836, now also confining itself to a trust business. Until 1843, the principal life companies of the United States were in Pennsylvania, with their headquarters in Philadelphia, and their business was transacted on the stock principle.

In that year, however, two companies, destined to introduce a great reform into the methods of life assurance, and to bring the business into greater prominence, were organized in other States of the Union.

In February, 1843, the Mutual, of New York, began business with its principal office in the city of New York ; and in December, of the same year, the New England Mutual opened its head office in Boston. Both of these companies were organized under the *Mutual* plan, all the profits to go to the assured ; and this feature recommends them strongly to public favor. An unsuccessful attempt was made the next year to organize a Mutual company in Pennsylvania under the name of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of Philadelphia ; but not until 1847 did Mutual Life Assurance have a permanent Pennsylvania representative company. In that year an act was approved providing for the organization of the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company, now the most prosperous of the Pennsylvania companies. Meantime the following companies, each destined to play a great part in the development of the life assurance business in the United States, were organized in other States, viz., The New York Life, which had been incorporated under the name of The Nautilus, in 1841, began to transact business with its headquarters in the city of New York in 1845 ; and in the same year the Mutual Benefit Life Insurance Company opened its head office in Newark, N. J.; and

in December, 1846, the Connecticut Mutual, with its head office at Hartford, Connecticut, began to transact business. The last-named company was destined to contest the supremacy, for a time successfully, with the Mutual of New York.

It was the custom of many of the life companies at this period to take only a part of the premium in cash and to accept the note of the assured for the rest. As the number of companies multiplied, and competition began to grow sharper, they became more critical of each other's methods, and the advocates of the part premium and all cash systems engaged in public controversy. The part premium note system was, of course, at first popular, because it enabled the policy-holder to carry a given amount of assurance with less actual expenditure ; but as it usually led to ultimate disappointment, a considerable part of the assurance being finally paid by the return of the notes, it has gradually fallen into disuse ; the most successful companies having been those which adhered to the all-cash system. One of the witty sarcasms of the opponents of the premium note system was, that "Mutual life insurance, on the premium note system, was only a mutual attempt among a number of partially empty bags to stand up as if they were full."

At the end of 1848, the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York had taken the lead among the life companies of the United States in respect of its accumulated fund of $742,000. In the item of outstanding assurance, which more properly measures the magnitude of the business of a life company, it is difficult to get the data for a satisfactory comparison at this early date; but five years later, at the close of 1852, we find the Connecticut Mutual decidedly in the lead. The centre of activity had passed from Pennsylvania to the North. Fowler tells us that nine Pennsylvania Companies had at the beginning of 1852 an aggregate outstanding assurance of only about $12,000,000. At the end of the same year each of the three largest companies, belonging respectively to the States of Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey, had a greater amount in force than this, as is shown by the following figures taken from advertisements which appeared in the papers of that day:

ASSURANCE IN FORCE AT CLOSE OF 1852.

Connecticut Mutual	$23,656,516
Mutual (of New York)	17,560,633
Mutual Benefit (of New Jersey)	14,978,507

The centre of greatest activity was, however, not in Connecticut, but

in New York, as the fourth company in size was the New York Life, whose assurance in force was at this time probably about nine millions of dollars, and the combined assurance of the Mutual and the New York Life, therefore, aggregated a greater amount than that of the Connecticut Mutual.

It is worthy of note that all four of the largest companies were already *mutual* companies; and that the two largest were champions of the two systems of transacting business then in sharpest competition; the Connecticut Mutual being a part-note premium company, while the Mutual of New York was an all-cash premium company.

This is especially interesting, because, only two years later, in 1854, we find the positions of the two leading companies almost reversed, the Mutual of New York having taken the lead with assurance in force stated as $22,182,633, while that of the Connecticut Mutual had declined to $18,948,225. The Mutual Benefit followed with $15,794,297, and the New York Life was still fourth with $10,290,662. Next after these came the New England Mutual with $6,400,663 in force.

During the next six years, that is, until 1860, there was a steady growth in the amount of business in force. The five largest companies maintained their relative order, but the Mutual of New York grew much the most rapidly, making a gain of nearly $18,000,000 in the six years. The Mutual Benefit almost caught up with the Connecticut company, and the New England Mutual gained fast on the New York Life.

But during this interval two companies began to transact business which were destined to play so important a part in the history of Life Assurance in the United States that special mention should be made of them.

On the 25th of November, 1858, the Northwestern Mutual began to transact business, with its head office in Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Excepting only the three giant companies of New York City, the Northwestern is now the largest company in the world.

Eight months later, July 28th, 1859, the Equitable Life Assurance Society of the United States began to transact business in modest offices in New York City.

At the close of 1860 the controversy between North and South was brought to a crisis by the election of Abraham Lincoln to the presidency of the United States.

At this time the amount of assurance in force in the principal companies was reported as follows :

Mutual of New York	$40,159,123
Connecticut Mutual	25,872,789
Mutual Benefit	25,426,538
New York Life	16,388,109
New England Mutual	15,654,162
Manhattan of New York	12,500,210
Total	$136,000,931

The increase during the year for these companies had been :

Mutual of New York	$4,839,844
Connecticut Mutual	1,813,195
Mutual Benefit	3,223,101
New York Life	1,103,391
New England Mutual	2,732,478
Manhattan	1,728,828
Total	$15,440,837

The secession of the Southern States and the dark cloud of civil war had much less effect on the business than would have been expected.

The following are the amounts reported in force in 1861, together with the gains or losses for the year.

Mutual	$38,188,122	Loss	$1,971,001
Conn. Mut.	26,398,145	Gain	525,356
Mutual Benefit.	23,858,353	Loss	1,568,185
New England.	16,478,749	Gain	824,587
New York Life.	16,411,259	Gain	23,150
Manhattan	12,528,081	Gain	27,871
	$133,862,709	Nett Loss	$2,138,222

A gain of $15,440,837 for these six companies in 1860 was changed into a loss of $2,138,222 in 1861 ; or a total loss of $17,579,059, as compared with the gains shown in 1860. This seems a very decided check ; but the remarkable fact is that it was only for a single year. Notwithstanding the fact that the war continued, with no immediate prospect of termination, the lost ground, and even the rate of gain of 1860, were more than recovered in 1862 ; the amount in force in the six companies having risen to $149,922,316, a net gain of

$16,059,607 for the year. And this was the beginning of a period of very rapid gain in the business of life assurance, which far surpassed anything that had ever been known before, and which lasted through the war and for years after its close.

During this period the Equitable began to show clearly the combined energy and wisdom of management which have since given it so remarkable a place in the history of life assurance. In 1865 it passed the Manhattan, in 1866 it passed the New England Mutual, in 1867 it passed the New York Life, and by the close of 1869, when it was little more than ten years old, it had become the third company in magnitude in the United States, and probably in the world. The Ætna, of Hartford, Conn., which began to transact business in 1850, also came into marked prominence during this period, taking, at the end of 1867, the fourth place in the magnitude of its assurance in force. At the end of 1868, or at the latest of 1869, however, the rapid gains which most of the companies had been making since the close of 1861 were checked. The Connecticut Mutual, the Mutual Benefit, the Ætna, the New England Mutual, and the Northwestern, whose progress for the last seven or eight years had been very great, came nearly to a stand-still, or even began to decline. The three great New York companies, the Mutual, the Equitable, and the New York, however, continued to make very heavy gains, until the great commercial panic of 1873. The severe and well-nigh universal financial stringency which followed that panic, told heavily upon the business of all the companies, though the good companies continued, notwithstanding a diminution in the amount of assurance in force, to prosper financially.

But the prosperity of the business previous to this period, and the laxity of the earlier laws in regard to the incorporation of companies, had led to the organization of a number of companies without sufficient safeguards, and whose methods of business were venturesome or dishonest. The State Insurance Departments had not then been made as efficient as they now are, and therefore reckless and unsound business methods were not held so much under control. Many of these companies were, therefore, too weak to stand the strain when it came upon them, and this period was characterized by a number of failures among the weaker companies. The ultimate effect of this was, however, good. The dross was purged away and the pure gold remained. The companies whose sound methods and financial strength had been successfully tested, stood higher than ever in the public estimation, and were ready to share in the return of general

prosperity, which began to make itself apparent in 1879. The losses of the previous years were quickly recovered, and there began an era of marvellous and absolutely unprecedented prosperity and growth, which has now lasted for ten years, and still continues.

But there were other causes which played a still more important part in producing this great prosperity, and without which its explanation would be very inadequate.

The energetic Equitable Life Assurance Society had taken up the idea of Tontine Assurance, and given it a practical shape. It met, however, with serious opposition from many quarters, the scheme being considered as partaking of gambling.

The advantages involved in the plan, as presented, were:

1. The option of different modes of settlement at the end of a period of ten, fifteen, or twenty years, so that the contract could be readjusted to meet the perhaps changed circumstances of the assured and the beneficiaries.
2. The realization of larger profits than was possible under other forms of assurance for those who were able to pay the premiums; and
3. The more equitable distribution of the profits.

The result was a large increase in "Tontine" policies, the New York Life and several other companies adopting the plan. The Washington Life, one of the oldest and most popular institutions in New York State, issued guarantee policies that have proved very attractive to conservative men. These policies offer both security and profit.

The Northwestern, after some delay, also adopted the Tontine plan, and it soon began to be prominent among the great companies, passing the Ætna, and gaining fast upon the Mutual Benefit and the Connecticut Mutual.

The Mutual of New York was very conservative, and opposed to innovations, and consequently both the Equitable and the New York Life gained upon it. The financial standing of all the principal companies at the beginning of 1889 was as follows:

Name of Company.	Date of Organization.	Assets, Jan. 1, 1889.
Mutual Life of New York.....	1843	$126,082,154
New York Life of New York.....	1845	93,480,187
Equitable of New York.....	1859	95,042,923
Connecticut Mutual, Hartford, Conn.	1846	57,460,649
Mutual Benefit, Newark, N. J.....	1845	43,514,461
Ætna, Hartford, Conn.....	1850	33,819,035
Northwestern, Milwaukee, Wis....	1857	32,672,811
New England, Boston, Mass.....	1843	19,724,538
Manhattan, New York	1850	11,543,049
Germania, New York.....	1860	13,961,200
Phœnix, Hartford, Conn.....	1851	10,587,353
Penn Mutual, Philadelphia	1847	13,787,429
Provident, Philadelphia	1865	15,040,879
Mass. Mutual, Springfield, Mass ..	1851	9,565,523
Washington, New York.....	1860	9,519,277

All the companies made great progress during the past five years. The remarkable feature of the Mutual's business has been its permanency, losing less comparatively by lapse and surrender than any other company, and transacting a larger amount of business in the United States than any other institution.

The first group of great companies is formed of the Mutual, the Equitable, and the New York Life. These institutions may well be called the Giant Companies, so great is the difference between the smallest of them and the greatest of the other companies. The lowest amount of assurance in force in this group is over *Four Hundred Millions*, and the smallest new business is over *One Hundred Millions*. The aggregate amount of assurance in force in this group Dec. 31st, 1888, was $1,451,227,815, and the aggregate new business written in 1888 in this group was $382,167,527.

The next group consists of four companies—the Northwestern, the Mutual Benefit, the Connecticut Mutual, and the Ætna, each of which had on Dec. 31, 1888, *between One and Two Hundred Millions in force.*

Of these, the Northwestern, with over One Hundred and Seventy-two Millions in force, is decidedly the largest, the Mutual Benefit but slightly surpassing the Connecticut Mutual, and the Ætna is decidedly the smallest, having less than One Hundred and Three Millions in force.

If, however, we were to base our comparison on the amount of

new business written in 1888, the Northwestern, with over Forty-three Millions, would have to be placed by itself. The Mutual Benefit, Ætna, Penn Mutual, and Provident Life and Trust, with amounts ranging between Eleven and Nineteen Millions, would form the next group ; and the Connecticut Mutual, with less than Eight Millions, would be classed in a lower group.

It is safe to say that no other interest is so closely identified with the public welfare as Life Insurance, and for this reason we have devoted considerable space to this important subject.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

SOME INTERESTING DETAILS WITH REGARD TO WINES.

Until quite recently the consumption of Hungarian wines in the United States was comparatively small. This was due to the fact that astonishingly little was known about them by the general public, and unscrupulous dealers took advantage of this ignorance to first offer very inferior or highly adulterated Hungarian wines at prices at which the finest goods should have been obtainable. The result was that the American public grew to believe, first, that Hungarian wines were outrageously dear ; second, that there was nothing much to Hungarian wine anyway, except an indigestible amount of weight, an alarming " headine," and a startling percentage of alcohol.

"We don't care for them ; we prefer French wine ! " was the general verdict.

In course of time the condition of the Hungarian wine trade in the United States attracted the attention of the Austrian-Hungarian Minister of Agriculture, who sent a communication to the late Hugo Fritsch, then Austria-Hungarian Consul in New York, directing an investigation. As a result of the report submitted by Consul Fritsch, the Minister discovered that some 150,000,000 gallons more alleged Hungarian wine were annually sold to an over-confiding public than were imported *in toto* during the year from Hungary.

This discovery created quite a sensation in official circles, for of nothing is Hungary more solicitous than of the reputation of its wines. After due deliberation, it was decided to take immediate steps to protect the reputation of Hungarian wines in this country, and to this end the Minister of Agriculture made up his mind to establish here a permanent agency, with branches throughout the United States, which should sell exclusively wines coming from the Royal Government cellars at Budapest, and guaranteed by the Government seal and label on the bottles.

But what are the Royal Government wine cellars at Budapest ? it will be asked.

Well ; the Royal Government wine cellars at Budapest are a

series of vast vaults built beneath the Parliament buildings of the Hungarian capital, and are the largest underground storing-places in the world. These cellars were established in 1882, in the interest of Hungarian viniculture, and are under the direct management and control of the Minister of Agriculture of Austria-Hungary. To these cellars any native wine-grower may send the produce of his vineyard, but his wine is only admitted after it has undergone various exhaustive tests, as to purity and quality. Having successfully withstood these tests and having been admitted to the cellars, the wine is then bottled, each bottle being supplied with the government seal and label. The wine is then held on consignment, and, when sold, the money is remitted to the wine-grower, less a small percentage charged for the maintenance of the cellars. It may be added that the wine goes forth from the cellars in bottles *only*, and thus any chance of subsequent adulteration is guarded against. The objects of this establishment are naturally to foster and encourage the production of pure wine, and to furnish a guarantee to consumers of genuineness and quality. These objects have certainly been attained, for, as set forth recently in an able article in *The New York Times*, "The seal of the Royal Government Wine Cellars at Budapest is recognized throughout Europe as an unquestionable guarantee of highest purity and excellence in the respective grades."

Since the government agency for the cellars was established at No. 60 Broad Street, a notable check on the sale of spurious and adulterated Hungarian wines has been exercised, and the consumption of Hungarian wine in this country has shown a gradual but highly satisfactory ratio of increase. It only remains for the American public to become more widely acquainted with the better qualities of Hungarian wines to insure for their wines the widespread consumption and popularity which they have for years past enjoyed in such countries as Germany and England. The average French wines sold in this country—both white and red—cannot compare with many of the wines from the Royal Government Cellars at Budapest which sell at twenty-five per cent. lower cost.

For instance, among the red wines, there are few French brands attainable that can successfully vie with either Janoshefyi or Villanzi, and as for Sashefyi, we boldly assert that it stands among red wines without a peer. Among the white wines, Ofner Adlersberger and Chateau Szalay have made a decided hit in this country; the latter, especially, which is a species of *haut sauterne*, having won such extraordinary popularity among the frequenters of the Hoffman House,

New York, that for a time some difficulty was experienced in securing a sufficient supply to meet the unexpectedly great demand. As for Tokay—Hungary is the natural home of Tokay—and the tonic properties of this famous wine, its benefit to invalids and convalescents is too well-known to need dwelling upon.

In ordering Hungarian wines, be sure to see that the bottles bear the seal and label of the Royal Government Wine Cellars, guaranteeing purity and quality. You will then be sure you are getting good, pure wine.

AGENCY, THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN WINE CELLARS,
60 Broad Street, New York.

SALT.

Though man derives his chief supply of food from the animal and vegetable world, there is one condiment that is considered a necessary part of his existence, for which he is indebted to the mineral kingdom. That is salt, chemically sodium chloride, a substance abundantly distributed over the greater part of the earth, and stored in untold quantities in the waters of the ocean. Rock salt is almost as heavy as sandstone of similar bulk, resembles alum in hardness, and is of a dirty red color, streaked with transparent white veins. This impurity gives us an opportunity of explaining that only a small portion of the beds of rock salt which have been opened up have been found free from an admixture of foreign substances. Were we to analyze this specimen we should find that its color and dullness are due to the presence of sulphate of lime, and probably some clay. Other samples differ in color, and yield potassium chloride, calcium chloride and magnesium chloride. Even in the refined salt some of these substances are present, but in minute quantities. The crystalline structure of salt is almost obliterated in the rock form, and if we chip off a piece it will be observed that it presents a foliated or fibrous texture. The outside of the lump is moist to the touch, owing to the affinity for moisture of some of the alien ingredients. Pure chloride of sodium retains a perfectly dry surface, and a remarkable property it possesses is that of freely allowing the passage of heat rays. Of one hundred rays of heat a slab of clear rock salt will transmit ninety-two, while plate-glass transmits only twenty-four, and clear ice none at all. This fact is of great value to the scientific experimentalist.

Deposits of rock salt occur in various parts, the most extensive and best known being in the province of Galicia, in Austria, the area of which has been computed at over ten thousand square miles. The towns of Wielczka and Bochnia are the points at which the vast field is chiefly worked.

Mining operations have been carried on for several centuries, and marvellous stories are told of the extent of the excavations. It is said that in one mine the workings are often thirty miles in length, and that the salt in some places has been cut away so as to form great halls a hundred feet high. In Asia and Africa there are numerous saline deposits, and the same can be said of America.

Where have these deposits come from? Geologists have long puzzled over this question, and even yet they are not quite agreed on the matter. Some attribute them to volcanic agency, but the bulk of testimony appears to be with those who assign to them a watery origin. It is clear that they do not belong to any particular geological period, for while the deposits existing to the north of the Carpathians are in the formations of the Tertiary epoch, those in Great Britain are in the Permian and Triassic, and those in America appear a long way farther down the scale. In proof of the theory that the salt was precipitated from water surcharged with saline matter, it is pointed out that such a process is now going on in the case of the Dead Sea, the Caspian and the Sea of Aral, with other land-locked bodies of salt water, in all of which salt is being deposited as the proportion between the bulk of the water and the saline matter introduced by tributary streams is changed to favor that result.

We are indebted to Mr. Burger, whose knowledge of salt entitles him to be classed in connection with this trade foremost in the United States, for the following matter, kindly sent by Mr. David Brenmer, of Cheshire, England, and which describes the process through which so much of the salt passes before it finds its way to the United States. The great saliferous beds which underlie the valley of the river Weaver, in Cheshire, are the chief source, not only of the salt used as food, and in the chemical manufactures of Great Britain, but of much that is consumed in other parts of the earth. There are deposits of salt in Worcestershire, Staffordshire, several of the northern counties, and in County Down, but these are insignificant in comparison, and yield only a fraction of the quantity drawn from the Cheshire field. The latter has an area of thirty miles in length, by from ten to fifteen miles in breadth, and at its richest part it contains two great layers of rock salt, the lower of which is from ninety to one

hundred and seventy feet in thickness, and the upper from eighty-four to ninety feet. Over this great mass of mineral stands the towns of Northwich and Winsford, the chief seats of the salt industry. It is only two centuries since the mineral in this locality was discovered, though salt had been made from the brine springs and pits from time immemorial. As the upper stratum of rock contains a considerable proportion of earthy impurities the mines sunk into it were, for the most part, abandoned when the existence and purer quality of the lower stratum were revealed, and the mining now in progress is chiefly confined to the center of the latter, where there is a layer of comparatively pure salt from twelve to fifteen feet in thickness. As this gets worked out, of course, there will be a falling back upon the portions of the deposit at present neglected.

The Marston mine, at Northwich, to which visitors are readily admitted, is one of the most extensive in the district. It has been excavated to the height of sixteen feet over an area of about forty acres.

The roof is supported on huge square pillars of the native rock, left at regular intervals (by the excavators) of about ten or twelve yards. Both roof and floor have been cut level, and the latter is covered with a coating of pulverized salt, as dry and as easily disturbed as the dust on a Macadamized road on a fine summer day. The air is dry, sweet and cool, the temperature from one year's end to the other varying little from 50° Fahr. Even in the feeble light afforded by the candles carried by a group of visitors and their guides, the surfaces of the pillars and roof display most beautiful effects, and at many points appear to be encrusted with gems. The rock is of various hues, passing from deep red to transparent white, with here and there a touch of yellow. An examination of the roof reveals a striking peculiarity in the formation of the salt rock. It appears to be composed of masses of varied figure, and of different sizes, and has the effect of an irregular species of mosaic work. The outlines are in some cases circular, in others oval, but for the most part pentagonal, and the separate forms measure from two to twelve feet in diameter. The boundary line of each block is composed of a streak of white from two to six inches wide, and inside the mass generally becomes darker towards its center. For the delectation of visitors, colored lights are ignited by the guide. The effect of the light is magical. It reveals, for the moment, the vastness of the subterranean chamber, and brings out the pillars in full relief. The beauty which even the candle rays enable one to discover is now

intensified a hundred-fold, and a person of an imaginative turn of mind might well suppose that he was enjoying the splendor of the scene of Aladdin's adventures.

The play of the light among the pillars is especially striking; long vistas being opened up here, and dark shadows thrown athwart floor and roof, while the vision is bounded by what appears to be a barrier of darkness solidified. Just as the last of the colored lights is dying out a terrific peal is heard, and a noise as of thunder sweeps through the mine, echoing and re-echoing for several seconds. The alarm which this unexpected occurrence naturally creates in the mind of the unaccustomed visitor is allayed by the explanation that the noise was merely the report of a blasting charge fired by the miners in the course of their operations. Advance to the extremity of the workings, where the miners are engaged, and here the manner in which rock salt is wrenched from its native bed is seen. As supplied for domestic use, salt is a more or less powdery material, but as it is found here, four hundred feet below ground, it is very compact, and requires quite as much force and skill to quarry as coal. The miners attack the face of the rock and cut perpendicular grooves in it. From these they drive bores right and left, which they charge with powder, and thus blast down the salt. To cut it out with the pick-axe would be a tedious process, chiefly because the mineral is not stratified, nor does it separate readily at the veins. On being removed to the mine-head the larger blocks of salt are picked out and placed in trucks for removal to the chemical manufactories, or to a seaport for shipment abroad. A large proportion goes to the former, in which it plays an important part. If we elect to send a sample thither and follow its transmutations we should witness some grand achievements of science and have revealed to us the many valuable services which salt renders to the arts.

The great alkali manufacture of England, which constitutes the wealth of several important towns, has its foundations in the Cheshire salt mines. Salt and its various products constitute indispensable auxiliaries in dyeing, bleaching, paper-making, pottery-making, glass-making, various metallurgical operations, etc. The chemical designation of salt—chloride of sodium—indicates its composition when obtained in a pure state, and the first operation of the chemical manufacturer is to separate the sodium from the chlorine. This is done by treating the salt with sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol). As the sodium has a stronger affinity for the vitriol than for the chlorine, it separates itself from the latter, and, combining with the vitriol,

forms sulphate of soda, or, as it is commonly called, "salt cake." The latter is mixed with certain proportions of limestone and powdered coal, exposed to a strong heat in a furnace, and the result is the production of carbonate of soda, which is easily separated from the ash of the limestone and coal. The chlorine, on being rejected by the sodium in the first process, allies itself with the hydrogen of the vitriol, and forms hydrochloric acid, the fumes of which are of the most deadly character. For a considerable time the chemical manufacturers allowed this acid to escape in the air, with the result that over a wide area surrounding their works no vegetable life could exist. This was a constant source of complaint, and the legislature of Great Britain had to step in and compel the proprietors to seek some means for the abatement of the evil. It was found that the objectionable vapors could be condensed in water, and appliances for so arresting them are now in general use.

From the liquid thus obtained the chlorine is extracted by a simple operation, and combined with lime to form bleaching powder. But we need not go farther into detail on this branch of the subject. If we allow a piece of rock salt to share the fate of its fellow smaller fragments, we should see it borne off and cast into one or other of a series of large open tanks or ponds, which are an adjunct of each of the salteries.

These tanks contain brine, and it is from that liquid that crystallized salt, for domestic, antiseptic, and other purposes, is made. The brine is formed by the solution of the rock salt in the water of springs or subterranean lakes; and the supply of it appears to be inexhaustible. In some parts the brine rises to the surface of the ground, but in others it has to be pumped from a depth of two hundred feet or more. The proportion of saline matter held in solution varies to some extent, but for the most part, it constitutes twenty-five per cent. of the brine, whereas, the salt in sea-water contains only three and fifty-six hundredths per cent. On being drawn, the brine is allowed to flow into the reservoirs referred to, where evaporation goes on, to some extent, in a natural way. To strengthen the brine the rock salt is added, but usually not more than the fragments that occur in mining. The salt is extracted from the brine by evaporating the latter by heat, until a point is reached at which the proportion of water is too small to hold the mineral in solution, and it becomes solidified in the form of crystal. The evaporating pans are huge trays of plate iron, and usually measure forty or fifty feet in length by half that breadth in width, and fifteen inches in depth.

They are supported on brickwork, in which furnaces and flumes are constructed.

The quality of salt to be produced is determined by the temperature at which evaporation is carried on. Bay or fishery salt, which is very coarse in the grain, is made at a temperature of 110 degrees; what is known as "common salt," at 175 degrees; and "stoved," or table salt, at 220 degrees. It will be obvious from this that the finest quality is most rapidly precipitated. In the production of two tons of common salt, one ton of coal is consumed, and a pan of average size is capable of turning out two hundred and fifty tons of that quality per week. By stooping over the pan the process of crystallization may be seen going on. It begins, as already stated, when the evaporation has proceeded so far that there is less water than sufficient to hold the salt in solution. Little patches of what seems to be semi-transparent scum appear on the surface. These patches are composed of groups of salt crystals, which are thus formed on the surface of the brine, and sink when they acquire a certain weight. The crystals are cubical in form; and when the evaporation is conducted rapidly they arrange themselves in a peculiar way, and form conical or "hopper" crystals. Fresh crystals forming near are attracted, and attach themselves until the mass is completed, when it sinks to the bottom and makes way for fresh structures of the same kind. The crystals are allowed to accumulate until the solid matter in the pan is equal to about three-fourths of its contents.

In the case of the table variety, the salt is ladled from the pans into wooden moulds, in which it is allowed to consolidate, and on removal from these, it is dried in a stove. The coarser salts are deposited on a platform and left to drain for some time, after which they are completely dried in the stove. It but remains, ere finishing, to say a word on the antiseptic uses of salt—that is, its employment to prevent the decay of meat, fish, etc. A large quantity of the mineral is used in this way, especially in the "curing" of fish. When salt is applied to fresh meat or fish, the juice contained in these dissolves it and forms a brine, which is proof against the agents of putrefaction. It has the power of preserving wood from dry-rot. Captain Joseph Hossack, the eminent surveyor of England, considers proper salting an invaluable factor in the preservation of ship's timbers, and his vast experience as a ship-owner makes such an opinion valuable to the ship-owners of all nations. In the beginning of the present century salt cost from $60 to $70 per ton; its price at present is barely one-twentieth of the first named sum. In Thibet and other parts of the world it is so valuable as to constitute currency.

THE MANUFACTURE OF CHOCOLATE AND COCOA.

Nobody could have imagined in the year 1789 that within one century the annual manufactures of Chocolate and Cocoa in the U. S. would amount to several million dollars. Fastidiousness in the matter of table luxuries was not to be expected in so new a country as America was 100 years ago. With the growth of individual fortunes and the development of art and literature, there has sprung up *pari passu* a taste for all that makes the table attractive. It is known that a little chocolate was made in this country as early as 1770. The cocoa bean had been introduced to the attention of Europeans, through Cortez, the Spanish conqueror of Mexico, in the first half of the sixteenth century. Its use as material for a table beverage became common in Spain soon after its introduction. Frenchmen soon recognized its value, and before the end of the seventeenth century it was largely used even in England. Though the cocoa (*cacao* in Spanish) bean was indigenous to the American continent, North America was almost the last of civilized countries to use it. Only within the last twenty-five years has the manufacture of chocolate and cocoa reached large proportions ; the importation of cocoa beans to the United Stated amounted to over 80,000 bags in 1888. Chocolate is no longer the only form in which it is prepared for use. There is a large number of preparations, chiefly of pulverized cocoa. Of these the best is the article known as RUNKEL BROTHERS' BREAKFAST COCOA. It is made of selected parts of the cocoa bean with the more indigestible oily element extracted, and without any other ingredient. Chocolate, on the other hand, contains the oily part of the bean, and is composed of ground cocoa, sugar and sometimes a flavoring from the vanilla bean. The "Breakfast Cocoa" preserves all the rich fragrance of the cocoa without anything that can produce indigestion. By the use of improved machinery, better chocolates and cocoas are now produced at one-fourth of the cost of older methods. RUNKEL BROTHERS have been established since 1870. Their handsome factory at 445 and 447 West 30th Street, New York, employs over 100 hands. Their products, aggregating 10,000 pounds a day, are up to the highest standard, and entitle them to rank with the largest European manufacturers. Their goods are sold everywhere on this continent.

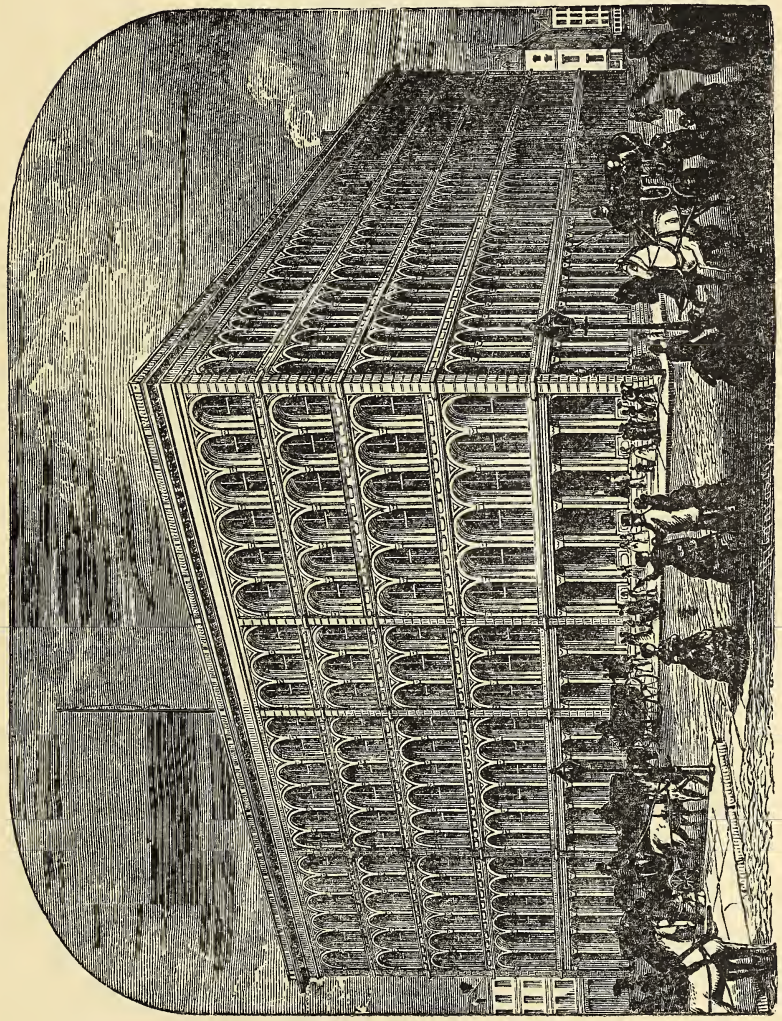
E. J. DENNING & COMPANY (RETAIL).

SYLVESTER, HILTON & COMPANY (WHOLESALE).

NOWHERE can anyone get so comprehensive a view of the results of American development, industrial and commercial, as in a large wholesale and retail dry-goods establishment. Half an hour there is worth more than six months spent in examination of the various factories which turn out goods for these great distributers. It is therefore in order, now, to bring the reader face to face with such an object lesson on the extent of American productions. For this purpose no house could offer so marvelous facilities as that of the successors of A. T. Stewart, on Broadway, between Ninth and Tenth streets. Messrs. E. J. Denning & Co., in the retail departments, and Messrs. Sylvester, Hilton & Co., in the wholesale branch of the business, have fully maintained that pre-eminence in the trade which was first secured by Mr. Stewart, who may fairly be looked upon as the father of modern dry-goods methods in America.

Occupying the block bounded by Fourth Avenue, Broadway, Ninth and Tenth streets, the building itself, constructed of iron and glass, and fire-proof, is worth more than casual attention. The ground area covered is about two and an eighth acres. Eight floors are in use for the work of the establishment. It follows that the total floor area used is about seventeen acres. Two of the floors used are below the sidewalk level, and six above it. This was the first building in the world to be erected entirely of iron and plate glass. Since the death of Mr. Stewart, there has been no change in its external appearance except that a dark bronze has been substituted for the plain white of former years. Some idea of its extent can be gotten from the subjoined cut.

The system followed within this vast structure is, in every substantial respect, the system of Mr. Stewart. The result aimed at is uniform courtesy to all shoppers, rich or poor, as free from importunity as from indifference. One price is the invariable rule, and no method is known to the establishment by which an employe can make anything out of his sales except his salary. No house in the world has a more careful plan of inspection for all its goods. The possibility of sending out an imperfect article from the store is thus reduced to a minimum. No clap-trap methods are indulged in. The competition of such methods has not affected this firm in the least. It relies now, as it always has relied, on only the very best classes of New York shoppers—those who are satisfied with the lowest price compat-



E. J. DENNING & CO.'S BUILDING, BROADWAY, BETWEEN NINTH AND TENTH STREETS.

ible with excellence in the goods offered, and who know merit when they see it in the articles they are purchasing. It has naturally secured an immense out-of-town retail trade, because of its reliability. Express charges, on dry-goods only, to all parts of the United States are paid by the firm, and the trust of the out-of-town buyer is never imposed upon. Such a business enjoys a normal growth in something like the proportions of geometrical progression. In no store in the country can be seen such large and elegant stocks of dry-goods, carpets, upholstery goods, and furniture as are here displayed.

THE A. S. CAMERON STEAM PUMP.

The first effects of steam were unquestionably directed to hydraulic purposes; this was a very natural and extensive field for experiment and enterprise.

The practice of obtaining water from wells is of great antiquity. Scripture furnishes abundant evidence that even in the patriarchal age wells were carefully protected as very valuable property.

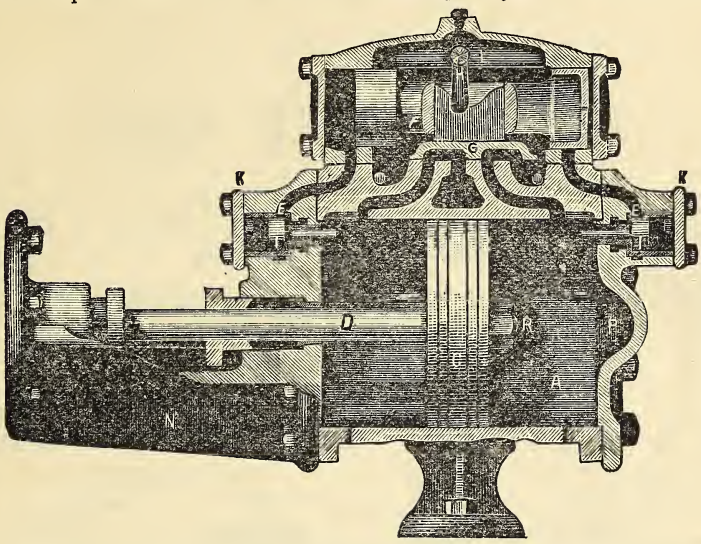
The history of the various mechanical devices for raising water embraces many characteristic features and exhibits many remarkable changes.

The invention of Mr. Adam Scott Cameron, of this city, of a beamless, crankless, gearless, and jointless contrivance for raising large quantities of water from any reasonable depths, presents the simplest contrivance of the kind that has up to the present time been brought into use.

For a lengthy period, during which a larger number have been sold than any other make, the Cameron Steam Pump has been before the practical public, and the verdict universally rendered pronounces it, for compactness and simplicity, for the small number, strength, and plainness of its parts, one of the foremost steam pumps of the world. As an illustration of this we will cite one instance out of many that are at our command. "On the 'New Croton Aqueduct,' our pumps were preferred over all others, four-fifths of the total number used being the Cameron." Economical of steam, direct in its action, working easily, even at the reversing points in the stroke, and at any rate of speed, it is essentially a pump for general service. Any intelligent engineer can understand it without trouble.

By reference to the sectional illustration, with the subjoined ex-

planation of the mechanical arrangement of the valve movement, a clear comprehension will be had of the simplicity of its construction.



THE CAMERON STEAM PUMP. SECTIONAL VIEW OF STEAM CYLINDER.

The principle of operation of all single direct-acting steam pumps is the use of an auxiliary piston or plunger working in the steam chest to drive the main slide valve. The auxiliary piston or plunger is driven backward and forward by the pressure of the steam, carrying with it the main valve, which in turn gives steam to the main piston which operates the pump. In THE CAMERON DIRECT ACTING PUMPS the reversing of the auxiliary piston or plunger is accomplished by the use of two small valves only, and the entire valve mechanism consists of but four strong pieces, all working in a direct line with the main piston, thus making it the most simple, consequently the most durable, of all the direct-acting steam pump valve movements.

EXPLANATION OF SECTIONAL VIEW.

A is the steam cylinder; C, the piston; D, the piston rod; L, the steam chest; F, the chest piston or plunger, the right hand end of which is shown in section; G, the slide valve; H, a starting bar connected with a handle on the outside; I I are reversing valves; K K are the bonnets over reversing valve chambers; and E E are exhaust ports leading from the ends of steam chest direct to the main exhaust and closed by the reversing valves I I; N is the body piece connecting the steam and water cylinders.

CAMERON STEAM PUMPS



Flange Valve, MINING PUMP.

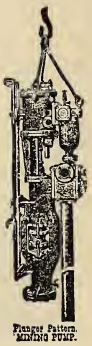
Vertical, Piston and Plunger Mining Pumps,

For Sinking Shafts. Used Exclusively in Shaft Sinking on the

NEW YORK CROTON AQUEDUCT

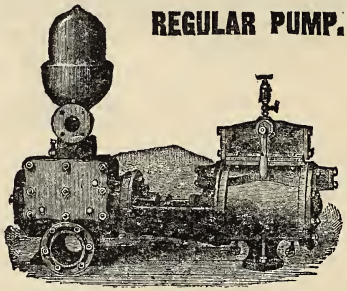
AND

EXTENSIVELY IN MINING CAMPS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY.



Flange Pattern. MINING PUMP.

REGULAR PUMP.

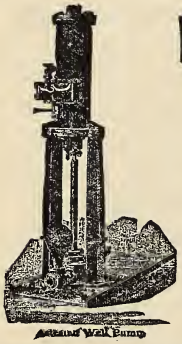


PUMPS FOR
BOILER FEEDING,
MINES,
REFINERIES,
BREWERIES,
TANNERIES,
IRRIGATING,
FIRE PURPOSES,
RAILROADS &
FILLING TANKS,
CRANK & FLY WHEEL
AND VACUUM PUMPS.

SIMPLE,
COMPACT,
DURABLE,
EFFICIENT.

ADAPTED TO ALL PURPOSES.

NO OUTSIDE VALVE GEAR.



Artesian Well Pump.



Artesian Well PUMPS

THE

Most Simple in Construction

AND

Effective in Operation Extant.

Combined Pump and Boiler

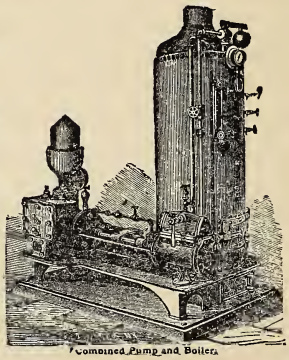
FOR

RAILROAD
PUMPING STATIONS

AND

IRRIGATING PURPOSES.

For Illustrated Catalogue &c., Address.



Combined Pump and Boiler.

THE A. S. CAMERON STEAM PUMP WORKS, { Foot of East 23d Street. } NEW YORK.

OPERATION.

Steam is admitted to the steam chest, and through small holes in the ends of the plunger F fills the spaces at the ends and the ports E E as far as the reversing valves I I. With the plunger F, the slide valve G in position to the right (as shown in cut), steam would be admitted to the right hand end of the steam cylinder A, and the piston C would be moved to the left. When it reaches the reversing valve I, it opens it and exhausts the space at the left hand end of the plunger F, through the passage E; the expansion of steam at the right hand end changes the position of the plunger F, and with it the slide valve G, and the motion of the piston C is instantly reversed. The same operation repeated makes the motion continuous. In its movement the plunger F acts as a slide valve to shut off the ports E E, and is cushioned on the confined steam between the ports and steam chest cover. The reversing valves I I are closed immediately the piston C leaves them, by a pressure of steam on their outer ends, conveyed direct from the steam chest.

It will be observed that the entire valve mechanism is self-contained; there is no outside valve gear exposed to injury, there are no arms, levers, stems or springs to get out of order; the entire mechanism consisting of four stout pieces only and all working in a line with the main piston.

The illustrations on page 374 represent a few of the forms of which this type of engine is constructed to meet the various uses for which it is designed; the water or pump end being varied to meet the requirements of the situation.

Catalogues and full information can be had by applying to

THE A. S. CAMERON STEAM PUMP WORKS,

FOOT OF EAST 23D STREET,

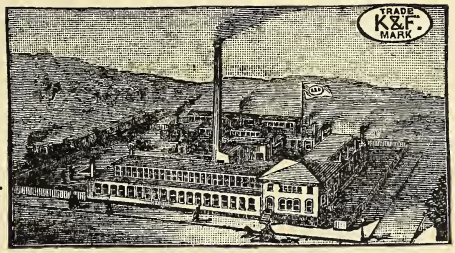
NEW YORK.

KEARNEY & FOOT CO.

OFFICE,

101 Chambers St.,

NEW YORK.



WORKS,

PATERSON,

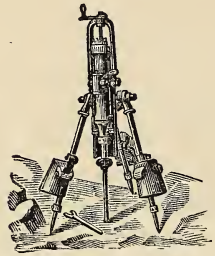
N. J.

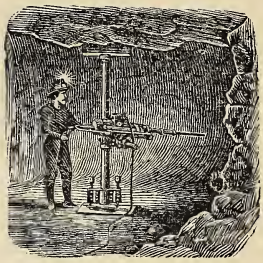
Capacity 1,000 Dozen Files a day.

Consumption of steel, 2 tons a day.

See page 385 for special notice of this Company.

ROCK DRILLS.





The Percussion Rock Drill has been invented and developed within the latter half century of American Presidents. It is distinctly an American invention, though claims are sometimes made that it had its origin in France and Germany. We know that rock excavations were carried on even before the discovery of America, and it is easy to understand that those who were engaged in removing the rock would look for some means by which a hole might be drilled with greater rapidity than by striking a piece of steel with a hammer. In 1683 a "Drop-drilling" machine was used in Germany, and history states that with "ten blows it would sink a hole one and one-half inches deep and a hand's breadth wide and long." We learn that in 1803 a machine said to be "Quicker than a miner" was made at Salzburg, and we are also told that Richard Trevethick, a distinguished English engineer, is said to have "*suggested*" rock drilling by machinery. If men who have acted as "suggestors" could get their names in history as inventors, the lustre that belongs to the names of Stephenson, Watts, Fulton, and Erickson would be considerably obscured. The mechanical inventions of importance are of necessity developments which, in many cases, have begun from an indefinite starting point. The Rock Drill embodies more invention in its volume and weight than any other machine of equal importance. André, in his dissertation on rock drills, which is embodied in his book on "Coal Mining," states concisely the requirements of a good Rock Drill, as follows:

1. A machine rock drill should be simple in construction, and strong in every part.

2. It should consist of few parts, and especially of few moving parts.

3. It should be as light in weight as can be made consistent with the first condition.

4. It should occupy but little space.

5. The striking part should be relatively of great weight, and should strike the rock directly.

6. No other part than the piston should be exposed to violent shocks.

7. The piston should be capable of working with a variable length of stroke.

8. The sudden removal of the resistance should not be liable to cause any injury to any part.

9. The rotary motion of the drill should take place automatically.

10. The feed, if automatic, should be regulated by the advance of the piston as the cutting advances.

J. J. Couch, of Philadelphia, first patented, in 1849, a Percussion Rock Drill embodying some of these features. In the same year, but a little later, Joseph W. Fowle, of Boston, patented and built a drill, the first one that had ever been introduced where the drilling tool was attached directly to the engine, or was an elongation of the piston-rod. Subsequently Charles Burleigh constructed a drill on Fowle's patents embodying some important improvements. Since then, Ingersoll, Wood, Githens, and Sergeant have brought the drill more nearly to the requirements before stated. All the early drills were what is now known as "Tappet" drills—that is, the movement of the valve was effected by "tappets" projecting into the cylinder, and struck or moved by the piston. This was the principle of the valve movement of the first "Ingersoll" drill, and to J. C. Githins belongs the credit of having perfected the tappet movement, as embodied in what is known to-day as the "Rand" drill. But the "Tappet" construction does not follow one of the most important conditions which belongs to a perfect rock drill, in that a part other than the piston is "exposed to violent shocks;" and, moreover, the tappet construction does not admit of a variable stroke.

Henry C. Sergeant made the first departure from tappet-moved drills in 1873, at the time he constructed the "Eclipse Ingersoll" drill, which has from that date until now been steadily improved and perfected, and which is known to-day as the "Ingersoll" drill. He has since designed a new valve motion, and a new rotating device embodying them in what is known to-day as the "Sergeant" drill. The valve motion of the "Sergeant" drill is similar to that of the "Ingersoll," except that an auxiliary valve is introduced between the valve and the piston, by means of which the valve movement is made more positive. His rotating device is designed to release the piston from the rotating mechanism when the blow is struck.

The "Ingersoll" and the "Sergeant" drills are the only drills made to-day which embody the independent valve motion and the variable stroke; and the "Ingersoll" drill is the only drill made to-day with an automatic feed attachment.

The Rock Drill was first employed for tunnel construction at the Hoosac Tunnel, beginning about 1865. In 1866 the "Burleigh" drills were in active operation in the Hoosac Tunnel. It was only because of the support given by the State Treasury of Massachusetts that the "Burleigh" drills were maintained at the Hoosac Tunnel, their weight being so great, and the expense for repairs reaching such a figure, that private enterprise could not afford to drive tunnels with rock-drilling machinery. After the completion of the Hoosac Tunnel the "Ingersoll" drill reduced the expense of repairs, and has been used in twenty-four of the twenty-eight large tunnels in this country. Among the tunnels driven by "Ingersoll" drills are the "Factoryville," "Snow-Shoe," "Vosburg," "Coosa Mountain," "Wickes," "Cascade," "South Penn," and the "New York Aqueduct."

The New York Aqueduct Tunnel, extending over thirty miles in length, was built in about two years, and is to-day, so far as the rock excavation is concerned, the most marvelous achievement in tunneling that has ever been accomplished. Shafts were sunk about one mile apart along the line, and all the American Rock Drills were used at various points. The following record of progress is given in a paper read before the Arkansas Society of Engineers in 1888, at a time when there had been nearly twenty-three miles of the Aqueduct work completed. The figures are compiled from the engineers' tables of progress contained in the "Report of the Aqueduct Commissioners:"

HIGHEST AVERAGE RECORD IN SINGLE HEADING FOR THE LAST FOUR MONTHS, UP TO JULY 3, 1886, WITH DIFFERENT DRILLS.

SHAFT	HEADINGS.		WEEKLY.	MONTHLY.
23	South	With Ingersoll drills exclusively.....	48.8	219.8
16	South	With *G & D. drills exclusively.....	37.7	169.5
13	North	With Rand and Ingersoll drills together.	37.3	167.8
20	South	With Rand drills exclusively.....	33.3	152.5

AVERAGE MONTHLY PROGRESS.

For the last four months on the entire line, 47 headings.....141.8
In thirty headings using Ingersoll drills exclusively.....153.6
In five headings using Ingersoll & Rand drills together.....130.9
In seven headings using Rand drills exclusively.....122.8
In four headings using G. & D. drills exclusively.....137.5

In mines the "Ingersoll" and the "Sergeant" drills produced during the year 1888 about 75 per cent. of the ore mined by machinery. Among the mines where "Ingersoll" and "Sergeant" drills are used are the Anaconda, in Montana—the largest copper mine in the world—Granite Mountain, The Cable, The Silver King, The Iron Silver, Cornwall Ore Banks, Sterling Iron Company, The Zancuado in the United States of Colombia, and the El Callio.

"Ingersoll" and "Sergeant" drills are also used in the gold mines of South Africa, in Australia, British India, Wales, and Mexico.

WM. L. SAUNDERS.

1880. 1889.

F. WESEL MANUFACTURING CO.,

11 SPRUCE STREET, NEW YORK.

"SUCCESS." "SUCCESS." "SUCCESS."

Buy our "Patent All-Brass Galley." None equal in the market.

Thousands and thousands of our Patent All-Brass Galley "SUCCESS" are already in the market; pronounced a success wherever in use.

The "SUCCESS" Galley is worth 50 per cent. more than any other Galley in the market.

Single, $2.00. Double, $2.50.

NEWSPAPER GALLEYS.

Octavo	6x10	inside	$2 00
Quarto	8¾x13	"	2 50
Foolscap	9x14	"	2 75
Medium	10x16	"	3 00
Royal	12x18	"	3 50
Super Royal	14x21	"	4 00
Imperial	15x22	"	4 50
Republican	18x25	"	5 00

JOB GALLEYS.

Single	3¾x23¾	inside	$2 09
Single	3¾x15¾	"	1 75
Single	3¾x11¾	"	1 50
Medium	5 x23¾	"	2 25
Double	6¼x23¾	"	2 50
Mailing Galley	**6¼x23½**	**inside**	**$3 00**

Other Sizes Made to Order.

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MANUFACTURERS OF

PRINTERS' MATERIALS.

PATENT STEREOTYPE BLOCKS, BRASS RULES, WROUGHT IRON CHASES, GALLEY RACKS, COMPOSING STICKS AND OTHER PRINTERS' MATERIALS.

A LARGE STOCK OF JOB PRESSES, PAPER CUTTERS, STANDS, CASES, &C., &C., ALWAYS KEPT ON HAND.

COMPLETE OUTFITS FOR JOB AND NEWSPAPER OFFICES.

No. 11 SPRUCE STREET,

Two Doors below the Tribune Building, NEW YORK.

Success Galleys for Sale by all Type Foundries and Dealers in Printers' Materials.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

A CENTURY'S ART AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT—PRINTING MACHINERY.

In no single field of invention has there been more development than in that of printing machinery. Benjamin Franklin knew of nothing but flat presses. It was not until 1835 that the first web press was invented in England by Sir Rowland Hill. It was to print from conical type made up on a turtle, and to cut, gather and deliver automatically. This was looked upon as a marvel by English mechanics, but it never came into common use. Conical type was awkward to handle, setting was slow, making up was difficult and accidents were too frequent. Many attempts were made to follow the same principle, but none were successful. The process of cheap and rapid stereotyping is responsible for the practical development of our modern web presses. The first of these cut the paper before printing it and transferred the sheets from one cylinder to another by means of grippers. McDonald and Calverly in 1868 brought out the Walter press in London, on which the London *Times* is still printed. It is printed before cutting, a principle which is now adopted by all the leading makers.

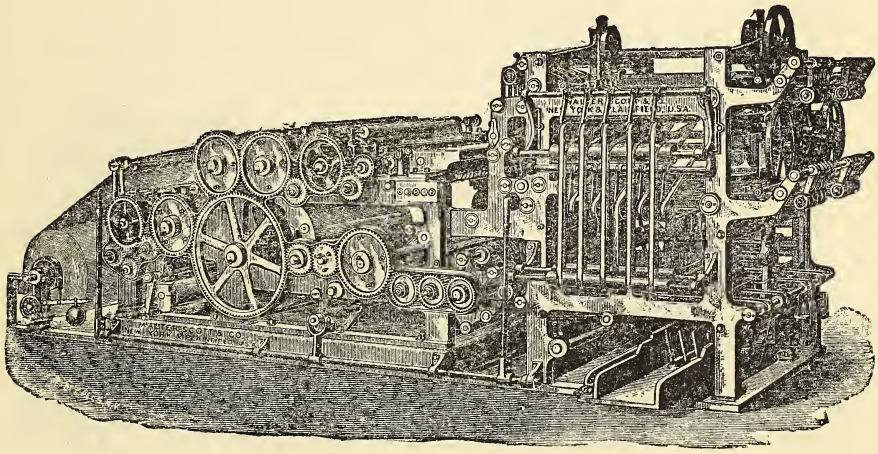
It was long before any one succeeded in building a press to print from the roll, cut, paste and fold automatically. The first man to do this successfully was Walter Scott, now of Plainfield, New Jersey, but then a Chicago inventor and manufacturer. He accomplished the feat with his own patents early in 1872. His machine involved a rotary folder, far simpler and more effective than any previously constructed. Since that time Mr. Scott has been easily first in the manufacture of newspaper printing machinery. He has now at Plainfield the largest establishment in the world, devoted exclusively to the manufacture of printing machines. The works occupy four and a half acres, and the flooring used for all the different departments aggregates 64,200 square feet.

The works are connected with the Central Railroad by a siding, and one thousand seven hundred feet of rails are laid through the

yards to the various buildings. Opposite the works the Central Railroad is elevated twelve feet. Mr. Scott has taken advantage of this circumstance by making a large embankment opposite the foundry on the same level, and also level with the changing floor of the cupola. On this embankment is stored all the coal and iron used in the foundry. The rails then run over one hundred and fifty feet of trestle-work, where the steam and smiths' coal is dumped. This dump will hold about one thousand five hundred tons of coal. There are also one thousand eight hundred feet of narrow gauge railroad connected by turn-tables, leading through the buildings and yards, to convey materials to the proper places during process of manufacture. The main building is 350 x 60 feet, two stories ; tool room, 40 x 15 feet, two stories ; smith shops, 80 x 30 feet ; engine room, 45 x 30 feet ; boiler room, 30 x 30 feet ; foundry, 130 x 70 feet ; and other buildings, equal to fifty-seven thousand square feet of floor. The ceilings are high : First floor—15 feet ; second floor—12½ feet. There are monitors, with windows and ventilators on the roofs. The windows are numerous and high, so as to send the light into the centre of the buildings. The timbers are heavy and the walls strong. The first floor is two inches thick, laid on joists, bedded in concrete eight inches deep. Where large tools stand the concrete is thirty-six inches deep ; the second floor is double and two and one-half inches thick, with paper between to keep dirt from falling through. There are about twelve thousand feet of one and one-quarter inch steam pipes used to heat the rooms ; some of these are placed about the windows and some below, as most convenient for proper circulation. These pipes are connected so that either live or exhaust steam can be used.

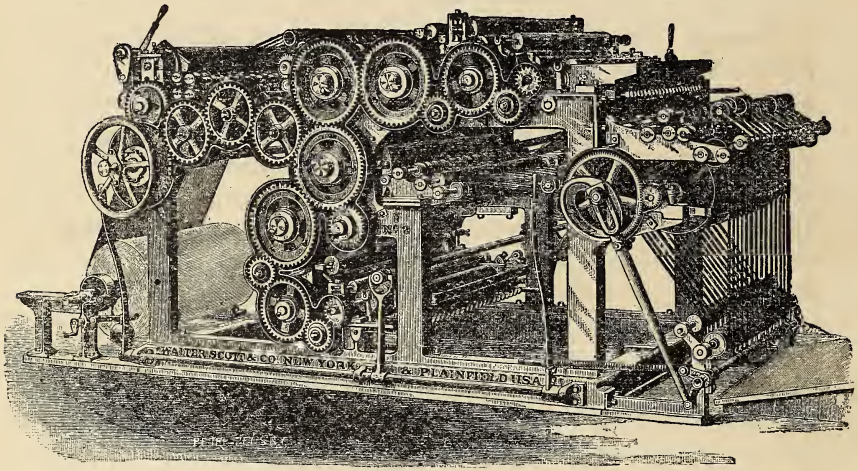
The buildings are lighted up by arc electric lights. In the foundry the melted iron runs out of the cupola into huge ladles, constructed with gearing so that they can be tipped over in order to pour out the metal. A monster crane, which runs on rails twenty feet overhead, picks up the ladle with four tons of iron in it, and takes it to the mould. This crane is capable of raising ten tons and placing it anywhere in the whole length of the building. It is operated by a man who sits in a cage and travels with it. By pulling levers he can run up or down, along, across, any or all of them at one time and at two speeds. The power is supplied from the machine shop by means of a wire rope. The crane is operated by a cotton rope, which runs at a speed of one mile per minute. About three hundred hands are employed in these shops.

Machines made here go to all parts of the civilized world, and are so superior in construction as to be preferred, even at a greater cost, to all foreign makes. They include every variety of press, from the most delicately adjusted lithograph,—than which there is nothing more accurate or effective on the market,—to the big in-setting press which will print, cut, paste, and fold 48,000 twelve-page newspapers in one hour. The German lithograph presses, made with labor so cheap that they could afford to pay the 45 per cent. duty required at our custom houses, have been entirely driven out of the American market by the superior construction of the American machines. There is no class of printing presses on which America does not beat the world. Mr. Scott has done more than the share of one man in securing this stage of perfection. His patents are almost innumerable, and cover not merely cardinal principles, but also the most minute details of the manufacture. Some of the features of the machinery made by Walter Scott & Co., at Plainfield, may be noted from the ensuing illustrations.



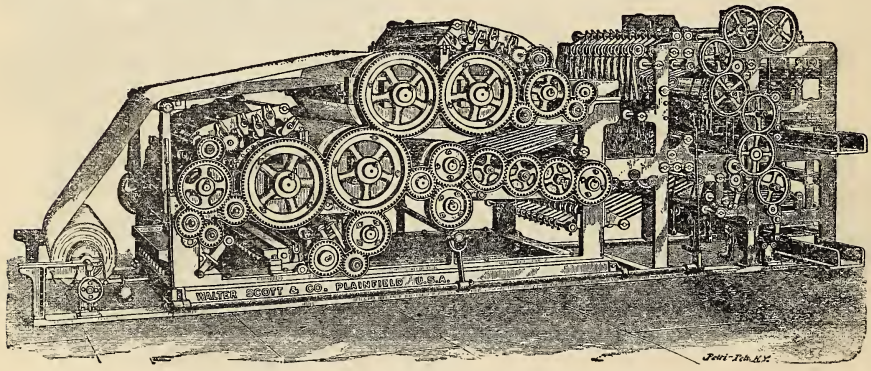
THE SCOTT PLATE NEWSPAPER PRESS.

The above illustrates the Scott Newspaper Printing Press, for four or eight pages. Its capacity is 12,000 eight-page papers per hour, or 24,000 four-page.



THE SCOTT BOOK WEB PRINTING PRESS.

Since the successful advent of Web printing machinery for newspaper purposes, it has been the constant aim of inventors to build a machine so constructed that the length of sheet cut might be changed to any size, thus making the utility of roll printing-presses for general work possible. Such construction, though pronounced impossible by all other manufacturers, has recently been achieved by Mr. Walter Scott, and the above cut illustrates the first Web printing machine ever built capable of printing and cutting any sized sheet.

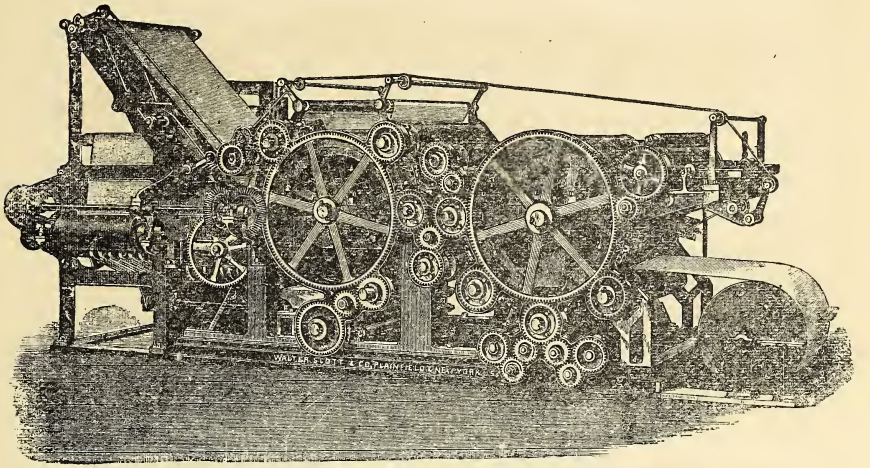


FOUR-PAGE NEWSPAPER WEB.

The above illustration shows the Scott (four-page) Newspaper Press. This machine is especially adapted to four-page newspapers.

Only one set of plates is necessary, which is a saving of both time and labor.

It capacity is from 12,000 to 15,000 copies per hour. No Wel press of simpler construction has ever been built.



THE SCOTT TYPE WEB PRESS.

This machine is especially designed for daily newspapers when stereotyping is not desirable. Its capacity is 12,000 copies eight-page papers per hour.

THE leading headquarters for supplying the trade in Files and Rasps in this city is the office of the well-known Kearney & Foot Co., located at No. 101 Chambers street. This corporation has a reputation and a trade co-extensive not only with this country but extending to many foreign nations. Their works are situated at Paterson, N. J., and are recognized as among the largest and best equipped of the kind in the country. The company founded its business in 1877, and is officered as follows, viz.: President and Treasurer, James D. Foot; Vice-President and General Manager, James Kearney; Secretary, Sandford D. Foot. The president of the company is in personal charge of the New York office. The labors of a large number of workmen employed at the factory are greatly facilitated by the use of specially improved machinery invented for the purpose, which is remarkably ingenious and has served to place this concern upon a footing with its most formidable competitors in any part of the world, as regards the ability for rapid and perfect production, and is aiding the company to produce a file which takes no second place when pitted against any file with which it may be brought into just competition. The raw material used is the best English and American steel, and in the selection of it the utmost care is exercised and

only such used as can withstand the severest tests. The output is one of great magnitude and importance, and comprises all the various grades of cuts, known as rough, bastard, second cut, smooth, and dead smooth,—as also the leading shapes, flat, half-round, hand, pillar, equalling, cotter, square, round, three-square, mill-saw, taper-saw, slim taper-saw, double-cut taper-saw, crossing, cabinet rasps, cabinet files, wood rasps, warding files, and joint files. All these files and rasps are guaranteed as to quality, and are recognized as unexcelled either for workmanship, finish, or durability by any other house extant. A ready market is found for these goods in all sections of the United States, and an export trade is enjoyed with many foreign nations. All orders by mail or telegraph are promptly attended to at the New York office, and are filled direct from the factory. The characteristics which have ever regulated the business policy of this responsible house are such as to entitle it to universal respect and consideration. See page 375 for cut of works, etc.

Tingue, House & Co., Manufacturers of Felts and Felting (in Sheets or by the Yard) for Manufacturers and Machinery Purposes. Mills, Glenville, Conn.; Salesroom and Office, No. 56 Reade Street. The printing and lithographing business has grown to extensive proportions, and contingent industries have multiplied and increased accordingly. For many years it was necessary to import from abroad the blankets and tapes used in printing presses, and the molleton cloth used for printing on lithographic machines; indeed, one firm in England had a monopoly of felt blankets and tapes, and it seemed as though their prestige here would daunt any American concern from attempting competition against the well-established and wealthy English firm. However, in 1872, Messrs. Tingue, House & Co., of No. 56 Reade Street, determined to try it, and started the manufacture of these absolute necessities of the printers' trade. They began in a small way, but so thoroughly and ably did they meet the wants of the printers in every particular, and of such good quality was all their goods, that from the small beginning has grown a wonderful, enormous business. At Glenville, Conn., the employment of a large number of hands is required to supply the enormous demands made upon the firm for their goods from all over the United States. On Reade Street the firm occupy three floors, each 25x70 feet in dimensions, and these rooms are heavily stocked with a first-class assortment of feltings of every description from their Glenville factory. The co-

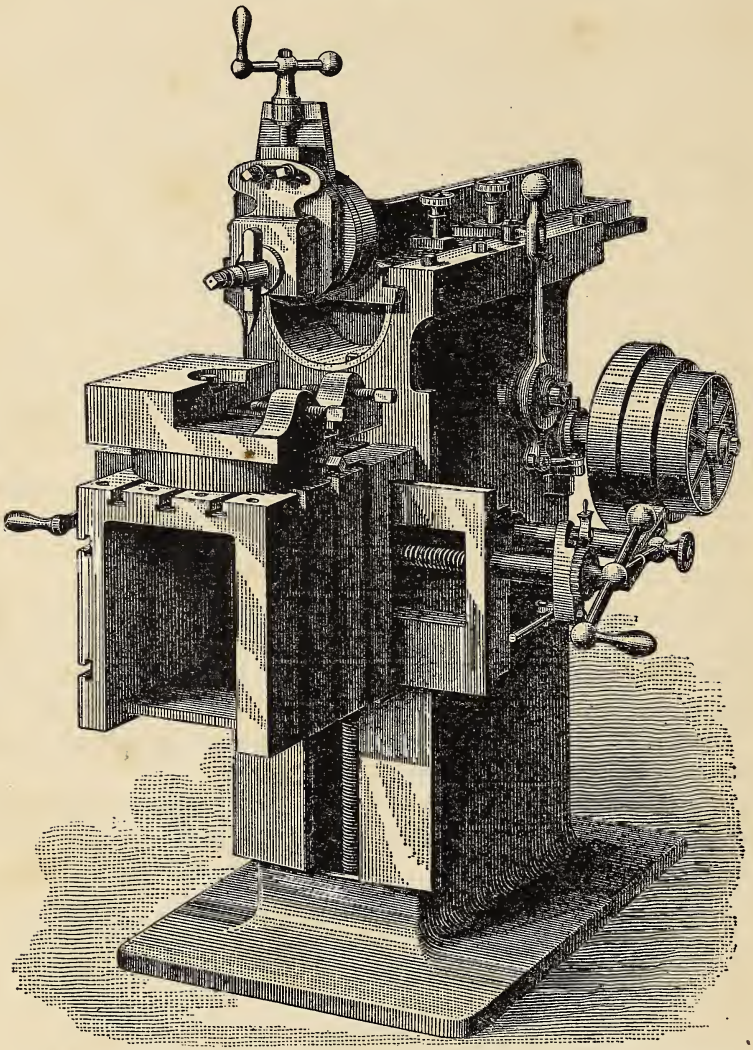
partners are Messrs. W. J. Tingue and Charles W. House. Mr. Tingue is a native of New York State and has the superintendence of the factories. Mr. House was born in Connecticut and has charge of the warehouse in this city. Both have managed their respective departments of the business so admirably that no other firm in their particular line is more popular.

An article on this subject would not be complete without reference being made to the machines used in their construction, and we have been favored by the well-known house of The Prentiss Tool and Supply Co. for the following information:

This business is assuming vast proportions; and taking our own house as evidence of the growth of this particular branch, we may state that in the past few years we have increased our business twenty per cent.—to wonderful proportions.

This house justly claims for itself the first place in its ability to cater to the general machinery trade; and owing to a decision lately arrived at by this company, they will be known in the future as principally interested in Machine Tools, as they find their efforts can be best used for their clients in pushing, in a thorough manner, this branch of the business.

The cut following shows the new "Prentiss Friction Shaper," and circulars with full details will be gladly sent on application.



The premises about to be occupied by this company are the most central, and adapted in every way to the business.

They act as agents for the following well-known firms:

"PUTNAM MACHINE CO."
LODGE, DAVIS & CO., of Cincinnati.
PRENTISS BROS., of Worcester.

And representative houses of this high order.

Among their specialties they include:

Upright and Radial Drills, Engine Lathes,
Iron Planers, Milling Machines,

And a great variety of machines used in working metals.

For this large and complete edition of the Souvenir and Official Programme of our Centennial History, we are indebted to the well-known printing establishment of Jenkins & McCowan, corner Grand and Centre streets. This printing house was formerly located at No. 8 Spruce Street, opposite the *Tribune* Building. In 1884 the old plant of presses was sold, and the improved Campbell Printing-presses were put up in the present commodious building. Besides the Campbell, they have the Adams, Hoe stop cylinder, and Peerless presses. The business has been steadily growing, and with the increase of patronage new type and larger presses have been added, together with a very complete pamphlet bindery. An electrotype foundry, with Edwin Flower as proprietor, makes the establishment one of the best book houses in the city. Mr. McCowan has been a practical pressman for some thirty years, having been connected with some of the best-known houses in the city. The foremen of the composing and press rooms are men of large and valuable experience; the former having served years at Spruce Street, and the latter fourteen years as foreman for J. J. Little & Co. Great care is taken in the proof-reading; and of their large list of patrons among publishers, magazine and newspaper houses, their close reading is complimented. Any contracts entered into by this firm are promptly and satisfactorily executed, and they do very fine work, and turn out large editions with their extended and improved facilities.

The building at 43 and 45 Centre Street, New York, the premises occupied by the late James Somerville as a bookbindery for nearly thirty years, has been put in thorough repair and leased and refitted by James A. Wilmore, late of Richmond, Va., with an entire new plant of the latest and most improved machinery. The experienced and competent force of employees that have been so long connected with the bookbindery business at this place are retained, under the experienced management of Norman C. Miller and Andrew D. Fleming, so long connected with the former establishment.

ALFRED DOLCE,

MANUFACTURER OF

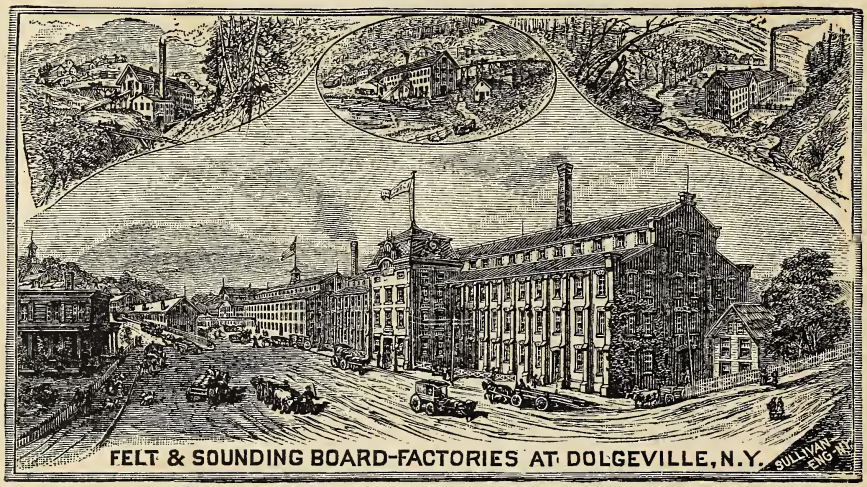
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ALL-WOOL FELTS,

PIANO AND ORGAN MAKERS' AND TUNERS'

TOOLS, HARDWARE, AND SUPPLIES.

SEND FOR ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE.



SOLE AGENT FOR

M. POEHLMANN'S

and

W. D. HOUGHTON'S

MUSIC WIRE.

122 EAST THIRTEENTH ST., NEW YORK.





THE

ALFRED DOLGE

CELEBRATED

Felt Slippers & Shoes



FOR COLD AND TENDER FEET.

NOISELESS, WARM, DURABLE.





DANIEL GREEN & CO., Sole Agents,

122 East Thirteenth Street, New York.

THE MUTUAL

Life Insurance Company

OF NEW YORK.

RICHARD A. McCURDY, PRESIDENT.

ASSETS, -:- -:- $126,082,153 56.

The Largest and Best Life Insurance Company in the World.

The New Business of the Mutual Life Insurance Company in 1888 Exceeded $103,000,000.

Its Business shows the Greatest Comparative Gain made by any Company during the past year, including

A gain in assets of	**$ 7,275,301 68**
A gain in income of	**3,096,010 06**
A gain in new premiums of	**2,333,406 00**
A gain in surplus of	**1,645,622 11**
A gain in new business of	**33,756,792 85**
A gain of risks in force	**54,496,251 85**

THE MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

Has Paid to Policy-holders since Organization

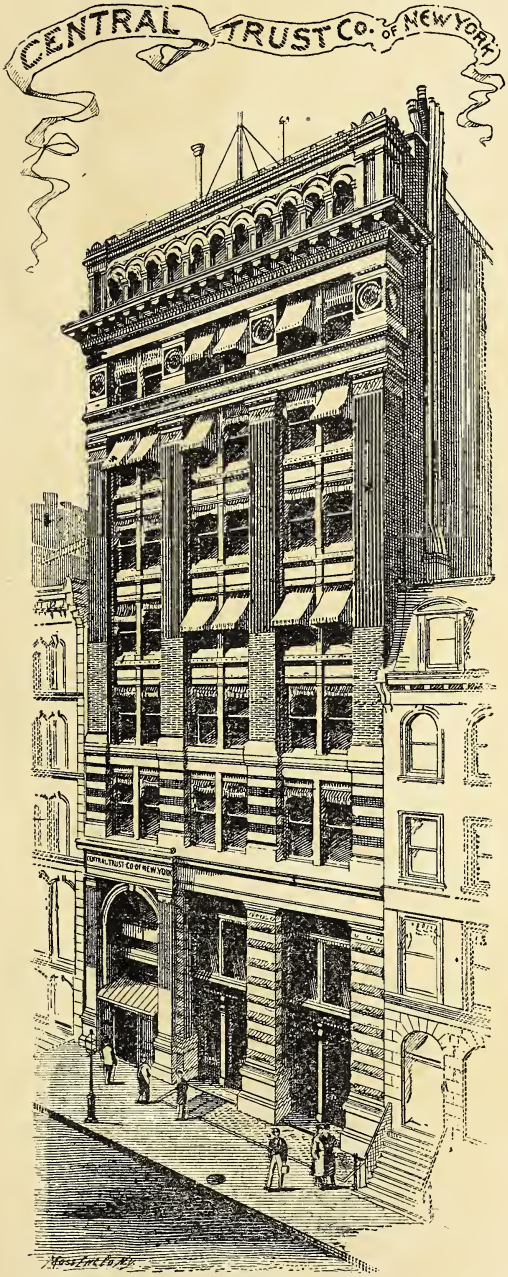
$272,481,839 82.

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